

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 20, 1896.

The Week.

MR. ELLIOT DANFORTH, who was chosen to preside over the Bryan notification meeting on Wednesday of last week, was once Treasurer of this State and ex-officio a member of the State Board of Canvassers. While he held these offices, a contested election case in Dutchess County came before the board, consisting of two returns, the Mylod return and the Emans return. The Supreme Court and Court of Appeals successively forbade the board to canvass the former; but when Maynard made his celebrated theft of the latter, they canvassed the illegal return in defiance of the court's order, excusing themselves by saying there was no other before them. For this offence, which changed the political complexion of the State Legislature, Mr. Danforth and his associates were held guilty of a deliberate contempt of the highest court of New York, and heavily fined. As the opinion of the Court of Appeals puts it, they did "the very thing which the issuance of the writ was intended to absolutely prevent, and thus contemned and defeated the will of the court." It is singularly fitting that Mr. Danforth should have been dragged forth into conspicuousness once more, to give the sanction of his reputation for defiance of judicial authority to a meeting advocating the degradation of all courts, and the creation of a millennium where no ardent soul shall be cramped and confined by the despotism of "government by injunction."

We have now had Mr. Bryan in two characters—that of a demagogue and that of a solemn economist. If anything could make us prefer the former rôle, it would be his performance of the latter. His conception of the demagogue's part was very poor. All his undignified, slap-you-on-the-back, hired-man style of haranguing the crowds showed him very inexpert in the art. The truly great demagogues never thus vulgarly let themselves down to the level of the mob. Bryan's coarse and careless joking about the post-offices he was going to distribute next year was a fearful blunder for him to make, such as the stupidest Presidential candidate on record was never capable of making. But all these misconceptions of his rôle are as nothing compared with the gross, the incredible ignorance he displayed when he essayed the character of profound economist. His references to savings banks and life-insurance companies are alone enough to rank him in the booby class in business. United States Senators could not have displayed crasser ignorance. To meet the objection

that, under free silver, life-insurance policies would be worth only half their face value, he asserts that the gold standard, on the other hand, increases the profits of "the companies" at the expense of the policy-holders. Does Mr. Bryan know, or does he not know, that nearly every life-insurance company is a mutual concern, and that all the profits go, and necessarily go, to the benefit of the policy-holders? A wise man from Nebraska delivering himself in this fashion in New York is not merely, as he says, in an "enemy's country," but in what is evidently for him an absolute *terra incognita*. His remark about the savings banks finding it increasingly difficult under the gold standard to "collect their assets," perhaps means something to his mind, but to others it must remain wholly unintelligible. In all this sad floundering Mr. Bryan shows how much out of his sphere he is as an economist. He would do much better to stick to his crown of thorns and his cross of gold.

The curious fact that the only debtors worth considering by the Popocrats are those who cannot or do not pay, had been remarked before Mr. Bryan made his Madison Square Garden speech; and he did not fail to illustrate it. "It is sometimes asserted by our opponents," he remarks, "that a bank belongs to the debtor class; but this is not true of any solvent bank." Observe that in Mr. Bryan's understanding the word debtor means bankrupt. It follows that the phrase debtor class means the bankrupt class. Substitute the latter phrase for the former, and it will be seen that all the pother that has been kicked up, during all these years, is about the exceedingly small number (only a few thousand per year) who are reported by Bradstreet and Dun, Barlow & Co. as actually insolvent. Nobody can be considered a debtor if his assets exceed his liabilities.

Mr. Sewall formally accepted at the Madison Square Garden his nomination as Democratic candidate for Vice-President on the same ticket with Mr. Bryan. Mr. Watson, the Populist candidate for Vice-President on the same ticket with Mr. Bryan, has just issued another pronouncement, denouncing Mr. Sewall as "a millionaire national banker and corporation king, who represents nothing Populists advocate," and as "the typical Eastern plutocrat." A more curious situation has never been seen in our politics. We have had splits in parties before, notably when the Democrats in 1860 divided their votes between Douglas and Breckinridge. But in every case where a new ticket has been put in the field, it has been new as to both the Presidency and the Vice-Presidency. This year, for

the first time, we have two parties nominating the same man for the Presidency and two different men for the Vice-Presidency. These two men, moreover, are as far apart as the poles in character, affiliations, and inclinations, and neither takes any pains to conceal the contempt that he feels for the other. The situation only serves to emphasize the hodge-podge nature of the Populist party. The truth is, that it is not a party in the ordinary sense of the term.

The cancelling of Bryan's engagement for a tour through "the provinces," with several performances in Maine, is a confession by his managers of the failure of his trip to the East. His withdrawal from the stump will be sad news to the Republicans, for he has been losing votes every day that he talked, and he was the most effective orator for the Republican side who could be employed. The folly of allowing him to go to Maine and make a lot of speeches which might be followed by a large Republican majority at the State election next month, was so obvious that even less wise men than those who are managing the Democratic canvass must see it. With Bryan in retirement the next feature in the campaign will be McKinley's letter of acceptance, which ought to appear during the next two or three weeks. Bryan, too, threatens to write a letter of acceptance, in addition to the frightfully long written speech which he read in this city on August 12. He has nominally been an editor, but he evidently never mastered the art of "boiling down." If he expects the people to read, or even the newspapers to print, his letter of acceptance, he must "cut it short." McKinley, by the way, should learn wisdom in this respect from Bryan's experience.

It is gratifying to see that Mr. McKinley is becoming more and more outspoken concerning the true issue before the nation. In his address on Wednesday week to the survivors of his old regiment he barely referred to the tariff, but spoke with the greatest force, and we believe with genuine conviction, concerning the maintenance of the credit of the country. He reminded his hearers that Lincoln declared that every dollar of the paper money issued during the war should be made as good as gold, and that President Hayes executed that promise in the resumption of specie payments in 1879. The "70,000,000 of people" argument, which appears to be now Mr. Bryan's sole stock in trade, Mr. McKinley turned forcibly against him, by declaring that these 70,000,000 "mean to keep this government and its honor and integrity and credit unquestioned." He might have added that they will do this without the consent of

any foreign power; but, having some respect for the intelligence of his hearers, he did not advance this consideration. We should be sincerely glad to have Mr. McKinley dwell in future speeches on those utterances of Washington which he repeated on the same occasion. Washington, he said, told us over and over again that there was nothing so important to preserve as the nation's honor; that the most important source of strength was the public credit, and that the best method of preserving it was to use it as sparingly as possible. That last proposition is a political platform in itself, and the fact that Mr. McKinley quotes it may signify a good deal. All our troubles are due to a disregard of its warning. We have used the public credit, not sparingly, but lavishly, and strained it nearly to the breaking-point. We have used it to sustain the silver dollars and the paper dollars, and if it is to be preserved hereafter we must lighten its burdens. It is hardly to be supposed that Mr. McKinley has gone so far as to formulate a policy for a more sparing use of the public credit; but if he is spending his time in studying the views of the founders of the government, we may accept the omen as a happy one.

It is very significant that no interest whatever is taken in the question whether the Chicago platform really contains a declaration that silver dollars shall not be made a legal tender in satisfaction of existing contracts for payment in gold. The official stenographer of the convention certifies that Senator Hill's amendment to this effect was adopted; Mr. Richardson of Tennessee, who was presiding at the time, declares that it was not, and nobody cares which is right. The members of the convention hooted at the idea of giving the matter any consideration whatever. It is true that the United States Supreme Court, "as at present constituted," would require debtors to pay gold dollars when they had promised to pay gold dollars. But it is the Supreme Court "as hereafter to be constituted" that the Popocrats are counting on. If they can command a majority for free silver coinage, they can command a majority for a bill increasing the number of justices of the Supreme Court; and the best evidence of this is the total indifference of the country to the question what the Chicago platform really says.

Very little sympathy will be wasted on the cabal of anti-Cleveland United States Senators whose course in the last few years is really accountable for the delivery of the Democratic organization into the hands of the silver Populists at Chicago. Nothing has been more evident for a long time than that thwarting the President was a more important object with these men than the passage of any legis-

lation which would benefit the country—and so, necessarily, their own party—so long as this legislation was in line with the President's recommendations. Failing to "run the Administration" in the distribution of the spoils during Mr. Cleveland's first term, they got together to defeat his public aims as soon as he entered office the second time. Their failure in their efforts to thwart the repeal of the Sherman silver bill only increased the venom of their opposition, and when they put the new tariff bill through in a shape which rendered it impossible for the President to sign it, they thought that they had him "down." They imagined that their triumph was complete when their national convention trampled all Cleveland principles into the dust. But, with the campaign not yet fairly under way, these conspirators see themselves hustled over the breastworks with as little ceremony as they have shown their party opponents. Senator Jones is scoffed at by all the faithful Bryanites, berated by the stricter Populists, and not even allowed to have his say as to the place of the Bryan headquarters. Senator Gorman is put to the humiliation of seeing the headquarters set up in Chicago—for one reason so as to be as far as possible from Maryland—and is denied a place on the Bryan campaign committee. And the rest of the crowd who cried so lustily at Chicago for free silver, Bryan, and all the other outcomes of that convention—Vest, Bate, Cockrell, Harris, etc.—find their wishes and influence of equally little avail. Democratic defeat this year and all the business losses that the free-silver cloud is causing will be more than recompensed if the campaign of 1896 opens the eyes of the people to the real character of this Senate cabal, and purges that body of the men whose presence there has wrecked their party and put a check on the material progress of the whole country.

The Kansas Republicans have had a pretty hard job "getting in line" with the national platform of their party this year. All political organizations in that State have yielded to the silver craze during the last few years. In 1892 the Republican platform "urged the passage of such laws as will increase the coinage of silver, looking to the coinage of the production of our own mines as soon as it can be done without injury to the business interests of the country." In 1894 the platform declared that "the interests of the producers of the country, its farmers and its workingmen, demand that the mints be opened to the coinage of silver of the mines of the United States, and that Congress should enact a law levying a tax on importation of foreign silver sufficient to fully protect the products of our own mines." This was the next thing to a declaration in favor of free coinage, and some of the Republican candidates for Congress advocated

unrestricted coinage. The silver plank in the St. Louis platform was consequently a severe shock, but the Republican State convention last week showed that the party has "braced up." Besides endorsing the national platform as a whole, the convention adopted two additional resolutions, one of which declared that the Republicans of Kansas "believe in sound money," which was defined as meaning that they "favor the use of gold and silver and paper in the largest measure possible consistent with the maintenance of the equal debt-paying and purchasing power of all our money"; while the other and more important resolution read as follows:

"We are opposed to the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 by this country alone, because it means silver monometallism, a debased currency, and the destruction of our national credit."

The first thing in the shape of a test of public sentiment will come with the State election in Vermont on the first Tuesday in September, though that will be less important than the corresponding election in Maine on the second Monday of the same month. The Republicans are at a disadvantage in each State by reason of having a candidate for Governor who is personally objectionable to many in the party, and, if the contest occurred midway in a Presidential term, the ticket would suffer from this cause. As it is, however, the personal element will not count for much, nor will considerations of State affairs. Voters will cast their ballots according to their feelings regarding the silver issue. The indications are altogether favorable to good Republican majorities in each State. Maine has long been the one weak spot on the financial question in the whole East, and the success of the Fusionists in the September election of 1880 showed that surprises are always possible, but nobody can now see any reason to expect a repetition of that experience. The Democrats are split on the silver issue this year, and the Populists are running a candidate of their own, while the Republicans seem united, and under such conditions they ought to carry the State by the 15,000 to 20,000 majority which Chairman Manley of their State committee says that they expect.

The canvass for the Republican State convention is closing amid charges and counter-charges of fraud and corruption, on the part of the various factions and of the rival candidates for Governor, which seem to be well founded. A more disgraceful prostitution of the civil service of the State to political and personal ends has never been seen than the open and shameless manner in which Superintendent Aldridge of the Public Works Department is using the canal force to elect delegates in favor of his nomination as Governor. The squabble on Saturday over the control of the convention in

Warner, Miller's county was most disgraceful. As regards the State at large, the Platt machine has evidently secured an overwhelming majority of the delegates, as was to have been expected. A report is current that Miller, Milholland, and some of their allies will nominate another Republican State ticket if the Platt men shall control the convention. But even Miller and Milholland are hardly capable of such a performance. A bolt, in order to amount to anything, must have some character and principle behind it. The fact that the bolters did not succeed in electing as many delegates as they think they ought to have had, is not enough.

The recent action of a teachers' institute in Indiana is as amusing as it is instructive. Although many of the teachers were Democrats, the institute decided without a division that it should be stipulated in all contracts made between the trustees and the teachers that the teachers' wages should be paid in gold or its equivalent. It is said that this resolution was adopted "in no partisan spirit," which seems altogether probable. But we should have been glad to have the institute make it plain whether there was anything peculiar in the situation of teachers requiring that such a stipulation should be inserted only in *their* contracts for wages. What would the institute have said, for instance, to a resolution providing that in all contracts for the erection of school-houses, for the supply of school-books, and for the furnishing of fuel and lights for school purposes, a gold clause should be introduced? And of course it would have been necessary to resolve that all laborers employed in building school-houses, or making school-books, or producing coal that might be burned in a schoolhouse stove, were also entitled to have their wages paid on a gold basis. To make matters complete, the resolution should explain why every one else has not the same claim as teachers have to be paid in money of the present value; and it might incidentally call attention to the fact that the Chicago platform proposes to forbid the making of such contracts by teachers or any one else.

A correspondent asks us the question, "what kind of money the existing public creditors purchased their bonds with." The answer is that they were purchased with gold. Every outstanding bond was issued since the act of 1873 was passed demonetizing silver, and every such bond was sold at "not less than their par value for coin." It is worth mentioning that all the bonds ever issued by the United States Government which came to maturity have been paid in gold or the equivalent of gold. Even those that were bought with greenbacks worth only 40 cents on the dollar were so paid. Why? Because the Government could not hon-

estly pay one piece of paper with another piece of paper without the consent of the creditor. That would be simply an exchange of evidences of debt without providing for the interest — a method of "payment" which even Wilkins Micawber scorned.

It has been evident for some time that Russia was preparing to take herself out of the ruck of silver-standard countries, the only question being how and when she would plant herself squarely on the gold standard. The first step was taken some months ago with the issuing of a ukase authorizing the making of contracts in gold rubles. Up to that time the law had recognized only the silver ruble. Of course, the real currency was the depreciated paper money, the Bank of Russia having refused for more than thirty years to redeem its notes even in silver. But silver was the legal standard, and all contracts, engagements, agreements had to conform thereto. The change admitting gold contracts was officially explained as intended only to do away with some of the evils of a depreciated paper currency being a legal tender, but the steady acquisition of gold by Russia and subsequent legislation show plainly enough where she is headed. Another ukase has been promulgated (published in the *Cote Libre* of Brussels August 6), still further extending the right to make gold contracts, recognizing the paper currency as a legal tender only at its gold value on the day payment is made, and authorizing the Minister of Finance to draw up rules and regulations for the payment of taxes in gold or in paper currency at its gold value. This is practically, it will be seen, the adoption of the gold standard. What to do with the mass of depreciated paper, what place to give the silver coinage, are only matters of detail. Thus the last remaining great European power has yielded to the cosmic process, as Huxley would have called it, and dropped silver. But this, of course, will furnish Bryan a powerful argument for our taking it up and making common cause with Chinese and Dagoes.

The reply made by Mr. Balfour in the House of Commons on Friday to Sir William Harcourt in reference to the Venezuelan question is very encouraging, and will be received on this side of the water with as much satisfaction as it was in the House where it was given. He said that the Government had every reason to hope for an early settlement of the dispute. Sir William Harcourt's inquiry was whether the proposal contained in Secretary Olney's dispatch of June 12 had removed the difficulties in the way of a settlement, and whether the boundary dispute might now be submitted to arbitration. Mr. Olney's dispatch of June 12 contained a clause to meet the contention of Lord Salisbury that the

territory in actual occupation of British subjects should not be submitted to arbitration. Mr. Olney's alternative proposition was that it should be stipulated that in case the arbitrators should find that territory belonging to one party was in actual occupation of the other, the fact of such occupation and settlement should be given such weight and effect as reason, justice, and international law require. It is most gratifying that this door has been availed of (if it has been), and that the dispute may be regarded as approaching an amicable settlement. It must be said, however, that the public mind is now so absorbed with more momentous questions that Venezuelan affairs receive very scant attention. The question whether we are to adopt a depreciated currency, repudiate half of our debts, and plunge trade and industry into infinite turmoil, the end of which no man can foresee, so far overtops the affairs of Venezuela that most people who ever had any knowledge of the Schomburgk line have now lost it. It cannot be said that the loss is serious.

The German Liberal party, which achieved its most notable triumphs at the beginning of the constitutional era in Austria, has succumbed to the forces now dominant in Cisleithania. As a parliamentary power the United Left has practically ceased to exist; but an attempt is being made to reunite its most prominent members in a new "German-Progressive" party, which is to be much more uncompromising in its opposition to Slavic and Clerical pretensions than its predecessor proved itself to be under Taaffe and Badeni. The new party will, however, face a Reichsrath reinforced, under the new electoral law, by seventy-two additional members, not one of whom is likely to be a Liberal, and it will certainly be numerically weaker than was the coalition of Liberal elements which made it possible for Count Badeni to carry out his various reform measures. That the United Left had outlived its usefulness was made evident by the desertion of its most eminent leaders, like Plener and Suess, who could no longer support the vacillating policy of the present Premier. Count Badeni entered office nearly a year ago with a reputation for firmness which his performances since have sadly belied. He first gained the good will of the Liberals by his opposition to anti-Semitism, but he soon made concessions to Feudalists and Clericals in order to gain their support for his electoral reform. The United Left grudgingly followed him until he summoned Dr. Lueger before the Emperor, and practically surrendered to the leader of the anti-Semites. The Socialists are likely to profit by the disintegration of the Liberal party, and to be more numerously represented in the next Reichsrath than they ever were before.

WHY BRYAN FAILED.

THAT considerable anxiety was felt about the possible effect of Mr. Bryan's Madison Square Garden speech, cannot be denied. We, for our part, thought that the anxiety was baseless, as the nature of the case did not admit of a great personal or political triumph. But whatever the nervousness was in advance among honest-money men, it is all dispelled now. The very tension they were under makes their relief all the greater. In place of vague fear, inextinguishable laughter has come. Mr. Bryan has broken his prestige, and broken it fatally, as it now appears. He has already weighted himself with the terrible political handicap of having made himself ridiculous. For a man who was going to witch the East with his oratory, to have failed so disastrously at his first appearance that his managers have had to lay violent hands on him and order him to speak no more, he has made a disheartening beginning. What was the cause of the huge fiasco?

In the first place, Mr. Bryan's undertaking was essentially theatric. It was an unprecedented thing for a candidate to journey fifteen hundred miles to be notified of his nomination. Mr. Cleveland was, indeed, notified in Madison Square Garden, but he was in his own State and city. For a Nebraskan to come to the same spot was an open and obvious appeal to the spectacular. Now in the theatrical world ambitious and much-advertised performances of this sort have to be great and instantaneous successes, or else they are tremendous failures. In attempting what he did, Mr. Bryan was bound to achieve the most brilliant success, or to lose everything. A moderate attainment would not do; recognition must be immediate and hearty, the applause uproarious, or the whole play was ruined. Whether he could have won, by other tactics, so much as a *succès d'estime*, we need not discuss, but the fact is undoubted that the piece, as given, was hopelessly damned. The claque could not save it. The managers have promptly accepted the popular verdict and withdrawn it. In reaching out for a grand triumph, Mr. Bryan has but made his failure spectacular in the last degree.

One explanation of his disaster lies undoubtedly in his sudden change of rôle. A comedian sometimes essays heavy tragedy, but he does it at enormous risk. Especially is it fatal if he leaves the audience in ignorance, and lets them think it is a comedy they are going to witness. The Madison Square audience felt not only disappointed but tricked. They had been led to expect a sort of Buffalo Bill show. The dashing cowboy they had heard such tales of, they would have laughed at for his free Western sallies and audacities; but to have him startlingly transformed into a Professor Dryasdust, prosing through two mortal hours, this was too much. No wonder that they

fled before his portentous pile of manuscript with cries of "Good-night, Billy!"

Mr. Bryan's theory undoubtedly was that he would disarm Eastern prejudice and disabuse the public as to his personality. The Boy-Orator business was all very well for the Platte River or Chicago, but the conservative East, he suspected, would not go daft over that sort of exuberant rashness in a candidate for the Presidency. So he would reveal himself to the astonished gaze of New Yorkers as a profound student, a careful investigator, even as a man with the saving grace of dullness. He has let it be no secret that in this he expected to do for himself what Lincoln did for himself in his Cooper Union speech. Before Lincoln spoke in New York, many people thought of him only as a rough-and-ready Western lawyer, with a talent for storytelling. In Cooper Union he showed himself the sinewy reasoner, the well-equipped thinker, the far-seeing statesman he was. Mr. Bryan, in Madison Square Garden, would in like manner show that he was no flighty youth, but a strong and serious man.

Now the trouble with all this is that vulgar opinion in the East was wrong about Mr. Lincoln, but right about Mr. Bryan. Lincoln had to make no sudden change of character in his Cooper Union speech. It displayed his powerful intellect, his saturation with our constitutional history, and his grasp of principle, but not more so than his speeches in Illinois of two years before. He was really here the same man he was there. But Mr. Bryan had to force a sea-change upon himself. He had to give over his native style of popular harangue and skilful performer on the instrument of vulgar prejudice, and assume virtues which he had not. How absolutely in a strange and unrealized world he was wandering appears from the merest casual reading of his dreary columns. The most glaring self-contradictions, the grossest blunders in matters of fact, the emptiest platitudes and vaguest assertions, leap out to declare their author a man not accustomed to weigh his words, impatient of study and ignorant of his subject.

But the greatest difference, after all, and the truest reason of Mr. Bryan's downfall, is the fact that Lincoln could appeal to the patriotic instinct and the sense of national honor, while his foolish young imitator has to argue for the cause of private dishonesty and public disgrace. That cause would be desperate in the hands of Webster himself, if we can conceive his piercing mind caught for an instant by the free-silver sophistries. In Mr. Bryan's hands, the case becomes not only desperate but ridiculous. It is our great salvation that the free-silver logic is such a mass of absurdities and self-contradictions. It is our great good fortune that these have all been so stupidly collected and fathered by Mr. Bryan. A giant in dialectics, the most skilful adept

in making the worse appear the better reason, could not argue the free-silver cause in a way to stand secure against the battering of three months' discussion before the American people. The Boy Orator has not only uncovered its and his own nakedness, but has made it and himself an object of mirth to all the people. American humor casts an enormous vote, and Mr. Bryan's spectacular failure has arrayed it solidly against his candidacy.

SENATOR SHERMAN'S SPEECH.

SENATOR SHERMAN can make a good speech when he tries to do so. His speech at Columbus on Saturday was one of the best he has ever made. It comes at the right time to secure close attention. It carries the authority of the foremost Republican Senator, and will therefore secure the widest publicity and most careful reading. It contains some matter which, if not entirely new, is new to forensic debate, and is therefore especially attractive, and it presents the old matter appertaining to the silver controversy in a very cogent way. Coming on the heels of Bryan's dismal failure in Madison Square Garden, it will be more effective than it would be without that opportune contrast.

Mr. Sherman presents with great force the historical fact that the statesmen who framed the coinage laws of 1834 and 1853 intended to introduce the single gold standard, and supposed that they were doing so when they passed those laws. This is proved by the language they used. The first of these laws was the one which changed the mint ratio of silver and gold, which had formerly been 15 to 1, to 16 to 1. Why was so radical a change made? The French legal ratio was 15.50 and the market ratio in this country was not far from that figure. If the purpose of the statesmen of 1834 had been to keep bimetalism in force, they would assuredly have adopted the French ratio. There was every reason why they should do so. Why did they not? The answer is found in the words of the House committee that reported the bill, which Mr. Sherman quotes:

"The committee think that the desideratum in the monetary system is a standard of uniform value; they cannot ascertain that both metals have ever circulated simultaneously, concurrently, and indiscriminately in any country where there are banks or money dealers, and they entertain the conviction that the nearest approach to an invariable standard is its establishment in one metal, which metal shall compose exclusively the currency for large payments."

If this was the intention of the statesmen of the period of Jackson, Benton, Van Buren, Webster, Clay, and Calhoun (and we have never had a brighter galaxy), why did they not put it into law once for all? The answer is that they had not yet learned how to make a token coinage of silver as we do now, and they feared that they might not have any small change. This lesson in the science of

money was very slow in impressing itself on the nations of the earth. England did not learn it till 1816. We did not learn it till 1853. France did not learn it till 1864. Our small change prior to 1853 consisted mostly of foreign coins, principally Spanish and Mexican, which circulated at their metallic value, but our statesmen did not consider it quite safe to rely on foreign coins exclusively for that purpose. Moreover, there were some private contracts in existence payable specifically in silver. For these reasons silver was not demonetized, although a law was passed which was intended to have the effect of making gold "exclusively the currency for large payments." This was effected by adopting a ratio which overvalued gold sufficiently to drive silver out of circulation, as it did. One ounce of gold was then the equivalent in the market of fifteen and five-eighths ounces of silver, and this was well known to the Congress of 1834. They adopted the ratio of sixteen expressly to force silver out of circulation. It was a bulky, inconvenient currency, and it promoted the circulation of banknotes, which the Democrats of that day, and Jackson *par éminence*, wanted to get rid of. This explains the "crime of 1834," as Mr. Sherman ironically describes it.

The crime of 1853 was very much like it. After the passage of the law of 1834 our silver coins rapidly passed out of circulation. Foreign ones came in to supply the needs of small change, because our small silver coins were of corresponding weight with the dollar. There was the same profit in melting and exporting two halves, or four quarters, or ten dimes, as a whole dollar, because they yielded the same quantity of bullion. The foreign coins, however, were much abraded from long use, and each possessor tried to pass off the lightest ones rather than the best, and this led to frequent disputes. The evil grew with the lapse of time. There was no way to control the circulation of these "smooth" foreign coins unless the public were provided with better ones. The purpose of the act of 1853, which, as Mr. Sherman says, was passed by a Congress Democratic in both branches, and signed by a Democratic President, was thus stated by the chairman of the committee which presented the bill to the House:

"We propose, so far as those coins are concerned, to make silver subservient to the gold coin of the country. We intend to do what the best writers on political economy have approved; what experience, where the experiment has been tried, has demonstrated to be the best, and what the committee believes to be necessary and proper—to make but one standard of currency and to make all others subservient to it. We mean to make gold the standard coin."

The question may be asked, Why did they not go on and complete their work and actually demonetize the silver dollar? They may have thought that the silver dollar, which was then worth 4.26 cents more than the gold dollar, would

never again be so low in price that it could circulate alongside of gold, as this was the time when the great outpour of the placer mines of California and Australia was taking place. Whatever the reason may have been, their intention cannot be doubted. It was to make gold the single standard, with a subsidiary coinage of silver.

The action taken in 1834 and in 1853 was initiated and carried through by the Democratic party. Mr. Sherman is justified in saying that "from 1801, when Mr. Jefferson became President, to the close of Buchanan's Administration in 1861, the Democratic party was a gold party, opposed to silver and all forms of paper money." It was not until the chance presented itself of repudiating nearly one-half of all debts, public and private, that this party, at the instigation of the Southern Populists, reversed the policy which it had pursued for three-quarters of a century.

SOME FACTS ABOUT SHIPPING.

THE spectacle of a candidate for an office among the highest in the gift of a great people conducting a campaign for a monopoly in his own business, is not edifying. It is still less so when the reasons put forward in support of his scheme are analyzed, for they show a painful confusion of ideas. To build ships is, he claims, his object; yet that industry has been as highly protected by our tariff and navigation laws as the most ardent believer in paternal government could desire. To sail ships is another matter; and if Mr. Sewall and his associates secure their primary object, a tremendous pressure for shipping bounties may be expected. The mere possession of ships does not mean marine power; it is the employment that counts.

The relative commercial importance of the leading ports of the world may be measured by the movement of shipping in them. Certain facts are generally recognized, such as that the United Kingdom has a commercial fleet, both steam and sail, larger than that of any other nation; that Norway has a sailing fleet second in size to that of England, and is a very important factor in the carrying trade of every commercial power; that Spain is strong in steam vessels, but weak in sailing-ships; that Italy has a stronger sailing-fleet than steam; and finally that the merchant marine of the United States engaged in foreign trade is very small compared with our commercial importance. If the merchant marine of the great shipping powers be ranged according to their importance, the result is as follows:

STEAM.	Tons.	SAIL.	Tons.
United Kingdom.....	5,984,000	United Kingdom.....	2,982,000
Germany.....	893,046	Norway.....	1,452,276
France.....	481,972	Germany.....	660,856
Spain.....	479,746	United States.....	588,143
United States.....	252,045	Italy.....	571,605
Norway.....	237,125	France.....	398,567

What is less generally known is the dis-

tribution of shipping movement in the ports of the various countries and the increase in a stated period, say of ten years. A special study of the subject made in the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department suggests many interesting comparisons. Some of these, based upon the aggregate of entrances and clearances of shipping, will be outlined.

No less than eight ports give a yearly movement of more than 10,000,000 tons, where only two gave such a high figure ten years ago. These ports so distinguished are:

	Year.	No. vessels.	Tons.
London.....	1894	18,042	14,433,580
New York.....	1895	8,452	13,188,065
Hamburg.....	1894	17,484	12,505,735
Constantinople.....	1893	17,876	11,638,735
Liverpool.....	1894	7,279	10,489,578
Hong Kong.....	1894		10,469,182
Cardiff.....	1894	10,723	10,458,391
Antwerp.....	1894	9,512	10,075,928

In efficiency of fleet the order will be very different. New York shows the highest return, for the average tonnage of each vessel was 1,560.3 tons. Liverpool is not far below this figure, with 1,441 tons to the vessel, and Antwerp with 1,059 tons closes the list of those having averages above 1,000 tons. Even Cardiff is ahead of London's 800, but no other of the ports named exceeds London. Thus New York, among the great ports, stands first in an organized and highly developed shipping, where the highest tonnage is concentrated in the relatively smallest number of vessels. In another respect New York proves its increasing efficiency. The average tonnage per vessel for this port in 1885 (1,006 tons) was exceeded only by that of Liverpool (1,110 tons); yet after a period of ten years New York shows the higher average, and appears to have distanced all its rivals. By another standard of measuring importance, the relative increase of tonnage in ten years, a third arrangement is developed. Hamburg leads with an increase of 70.88 per cent., Constantinople is second with 64 per cent., and Cardiff is third with 50 per cent. Liverpool gives the least advance (5 per cent.), while New York and London give nearly the same result—20.5 in the one case, and 19.8 in the other. Hong Kong and Antwerp occupy a middle ground, the former having increased 35 per cent., and the latter 48 per cent.

It is easy to explain in every case why the increased activity in shipping should be so distributed. London is the great centre of imports (\$688,395,000 in 1894); and from Liverpool are exported British products and manufactures greater in value than the entire export from London. If foreign exports be added to Liverpool's credit, that port becomes the first in rank, sending out in 1894 products to the value of \$431,664,243, and London \$370,837,485. New York enjoys the eminence of receiving 65 per cent. of the imports and shipping 40 per cent. of the exports of the United States; a share in the foreign commerce which easily explains its high stand-

in relation to other ports. Hamburg has always held a high position in shipping—a position explained upon the same grounds as that of Antwerp, both being great receiving and distributing centres. The returns for Constantinople are explained by geographical position. As the only entrance to the Black Sea, and for Russia the only outlet to the southward by water, it must reflect the rapidly increasing importance of the Russian ports—Batum, Odessa, Taganrog, Sebastopol, Nikolaiev, and Kertch, all increasingly important shipping points, and each one of which has more than doubled its entrances and clearances in the last five years. The importance in shipping of Constantinople is as much reflected greatness as is that of Malta or Gibraltar. The coal trade feeds the barge tonnage of Cardiff, about one-third of the total exports of this product being shipped from that port. The eight ports may thus be divided into three classes. In the first, where the commerce is varied and substantial, may be placed London, New York, Hamburg, and Liverpool. In the second, the importance of that trade depends upon a single commodity, and only Cardiff can be placed in this class. In the third belong points where vessels touch, but which receive a comparatively small part of their cargoes. Here may be ranged Constantinople, Hong Kong, and perhaps Antwerp.

The same comparison could be made on a second group of ports, in which the movement of shipping was greater than 5,000,000 tons, viz.: Tyne ports, Rotterdam, Odessa, Marseilles, Lisbon, and Buenos Ayres. One and all depend for commercial importance upon some factor beyond the power of Government to create, but unfortunately not beyond the power of Government to destroy. It is the possession of some great natural wealth like the wheat fields of Argentina and Russia, the iron mines of Spain, the coal of Great Britain, or the manufacturing industries of the Manchester district, that brings shipping and gives them a profitable cargo. Or it is a geographical position that offers a favorable point for first concentrating and then distributing the merchandise movement, serving as great exchanges or entrepôts. In no instance, whether it be a port with a large shipping movement, or one of the smallest with nothing but a coastwise trade, can the agency of Government be pointed to as the cause of the movement, unless it has created a monopoly and so discouraged the natural development.

To encourage further than is now done the construction of ships in the United States would be a multiplication of the instruments of commerce where the supply is already sufficient. Apart from the competition with English shipping, the immense and ably handled sailing fleet of Norway must be met, as well as the excellent steam lines of Germany and France. The mere suggestion of Govern-

ment indirectly engaging in shipbuilding and in ship-sailing, by bounties and discriminating duties, opens up a vista of expense that must be enormous if the policy is to be carried on. The figures quoted show that the shipping service at New York is better in material than that enjoyed by any other port in the world approaching it in volume of trade. It is ridiculous to suppose that the interference of Government can better this situation or increase the advantage now possessed, although it may add to the profits of Mr. Sewall and his associated shipbuilders at the expense of the taxpayers.

THE HONOR AND INTEGRITY CLAUSE.

THE difference between Lord Salisbury and Mr. Olney over what is called in England the "honor and integrity clause," is one which has never before arisen in the history of diplomacy, and which ought to be thoroughly discussed, because it is practically the only obstacle to a general treaty of arbitration covering the whole Anglo-Saxon world—the greatest single advance in civilization which the race now has it in its power to make. There is no serious difficulty about constituting a tribunal, nor is there any reason to suppose that the definition in advance of all probable subjects of arbitration will be insisted on. The real trouble is the idea suggested by Lord Salisbury, and apparently adopted by Mr. Olney, that it should be provided in advance that each nation should reserve the right to withdraw from arbitration any question affecting its national honor or territorial integrity. Is this a good plan, or a necessary part of any such treaty? We think not, first, because "honor" and "territorial integrity" by no means exhaust the subjects which nations may insist on fighting about; second, because the clause, no matter how drawn, is so vague that either nation could bring almost any question it pleased within its terms; third, because this fact makes the clause itself emasculate the treaty; and fourth, because a nation, forced to withdraw, will withdraw, clause or no clause. A treaty with such a clause is exactly as if two private individuals should agree to submit all differences that might arise between them to a third, expressly reserving the right to refuse to arbitrate any question which either should consider so important that he would prefer to go to law about it. Apply the proposed clause to such differences as have actually arisen in the past between England and ourselves, and these points become very clear.

The war of 1812 involved the right of search. The right to stop an American ship and take seamen out of her did not concern our territorial integrity in the ordinary acceptance of the words, but we should certainly have maintained that it affected our honor, and it also certainly affected something very important, yet different from either honor or territorial

integrity, *i. e.*, our substantial interests on the ocean. Had the treaty with the clause proposed been in existence, we should have arbitrated or not as we pleased. A treaty without such a clause would have rendered war more difficult.

The Northwest boundary question involved territorial integrity on both sides. Our feeling on the subject found expression in the simple territorial war-cry, "Fifty-four forty, or fight." The dispute was settled by negotiation. Had we had a general arbitration treaty, it would have been settled by a tribunal. But if the treaty had itself provided for withdrawal, the clause would certainly not have helped matters forward. When feeling runs high is the time when arbitration is most important and the right of withdrawal most dangerous.

When the Confederate envoys, Mason and Slidell, were taken from the mail steamer *Trent* by Capt. Wilkes, England made ready for war, considering her honor and substantial interests on the sea (analogous to, but differing from, those of territorial integrity) involved. We were in the wrong, and avoided war by surrendering Mason and Slidell. Had there been a treaty with a withdrawal clause, England would probably, in the excitement then existing, have withdrawn at once. A treaty without a withdrawal clause would have furnished both sides with a way out of an awkward dilemma, and made threats of war unnecessary.

The *Alabama* claims were actually arbitrated; but after the court had assembled, England hesitated to go on, and came very near withdrawing, because we presented a case claiming damages for a number of indirect losses, such as the increased cost of the war of the Rebellion. The objection to them was that they were so large as to threaten England with excessive pecuniary liability, and also that the intention of the treaty was not to include them. Not only substantial interests, no less important than territorial integrity, but the honor of both sides, were involved. There was no withdrawal clause, but nothing is more certain than that England would have withdrawn had not the court maintained its control by ruling the claims out. The case shows that a withdrawal clause is unnecessary, because even a specific treaty without such a clause is no bar to withdrawal.

The Venezuela controversy involves the territorial integrity of the British empire through that of Guiana, and we say that it involves our honor and substantial interests in some way. A general arbitration treaty is proposed for this and all other disputes. How will a treaty with a clause enabling either side to withdraw on the very ground which has caused the trouble, advance matters?

In every one of these five great historical controversies one side or the other has found ground for alleging that its

honor, or integrity, or equally important interests were involved. In every one a cause existed which would have enabled one side or the other to nullify any general arbitration treaty containing a withdrawal clause. In every one of them a treaty without such a clause would have tended to enforce itself.

The clause would be all very well if the question of honor or integrity involved were itself to be submitted to arbitration. But this is the very point which every nation is so unwilling to submit, while its own decision that its honor or integrity is involved means nothing to its adversary. There seems no escape from the conclusion that the clause should be wholly abandoned. We are satisfied that, the more the matter is considered, the more clear it will appear that there is no half-way house for a general arbitration treaty between submitting everything to arbitration or nothing at all. At first sight the clause seems a harmless concession to natural sensibilities; but nothing would be more harmful than a general treaty, followed, on the first occasion of bad blood between the two countries, by a notice that, under the honor and integrity clause, one side or the other proposed not to arbitrate, but to kill and destroy with all the means at its command until the party of the first part yielded. To insert it is merely to profess a willingness to agree to arbitrate everything that you may not subsequently think it incompatible with your own best interests to arbitrate.

LIBERALS AND RADICALS.

THE low estate of German Liberalism just at present has led to an interesting correspondence between Prof. Lujo Brentano and Dr. Barth, editor of the *Berlin Nation*. The former contends that the trouble with the Liberal party in Germany, and Austria too, is that it has been too stiff and unyielding. It stands just about where it did in 1848. Then it was the party of progress and hope, but its principles have become hardened into a rigid dogmatism. It will not budge before the new needs and demands of the new time. Especially by comparison with English Liberalism does it show a painful want of elasticity and capacity for change and growth. If the German Liberals had only gone in for social reform, old-age pensions, workingmen's insurance, and all that sort of thing, they would not have found themselves so out of touch with the great mass of the electorate and so feebly represented in the Reichstag.

So far Prof. Brentano. To him Dr. Barth rejoins with considerable force, so far as the situation of German Liberalism is concerned. He points out that all the concessions made to Socialism have not in the slightest degree diminished the vote of the Social-Democratic party or induced it to abate one jot of its pretensions or of its determination to become the su-

preme power in Parliament. On the contrary, every attempt to conciliate the Socialist workmen of Germany has but made them stand together more solidly than ever and defy other political parties with increasing bitterness. Dr. Barth asks why, if a friendlier attitude on the labor question would have meant political salvation for German Liberalism, the actual adoption of such an attitude has not helped German Conservatism? Prof. Brentano, in fact, commends to the Liberals a remedy which the Conservatives, under the lead of the omniscient William, have tried and found to be a lamentable failure.

As for the English precedent cited, like most precedents, it depends upon who is allowed to make the application of it. It is no doubt true that English Liberalism has succeeded in retaining the sympathy and support of the great body of Radicals. If this has been done without any surrender of principle, as we believe it has been in the main, then there is no disrepute in the word "elastic" as used of that party. There must necessarily be partial readjustments of party aims and declarations from time to time. But it is also true that English Radicals have shown themselves as implacable as their German brethren. Despite the famous "Newcastle programme" of the Liberals, the workmen's party ran separate candidates for the House of Commons in as many constituencies as possible last year, thus securing the defeat of Mr. Morley and doubtless several other Liberals. Moreover, again as in Germany, the English Conservatives have gone the greatest lengths in trying to meet the Socialists and the workmen half way, and it is Mr. Chamberlain, a Conservative minister, possibly a Conservative Premier to be, who is now the leading champion of old-age pensions and workingmen's insurance. On the whole there seems little to choose between parties on this score, and one party seems to have been little more successful than the other in conciliating and retaining the extreme Socialist vote.

The whole question involved is a most interesting one, and has its practical bearings and illustration in the present attempts of Democrats and Populists in this country mutually to swallow each other. Any party, to live or to deserve to live, must undoubtedly keep itself open to new ideas. But how is it to discriminate between a new idea which will furnish it nutrition and growth, and a dose of poison, which its system cannot tolerate? How is it to know when to yield to a "craze," and when to oppose it? What are the signs by which a successful political alliance for common ends may be marked off from a base surrender of principle, a forced action in unison of radically antagonistic elements that are sure sooner or later to get by the ears and bring both into defeat and disgrace?

So large a subject cannot be satisfactorily treated here; but one or two general

considerations may be ventured. A party organization must know that it can assimilate new elements only slowly. Sudden and sweeping changes in the party creed and in party methods are almost certain to be fatal. Time must be had, and fair and free discussion, and opportunity for frequent expression of the party mind, before a great departure can be safely made. This is one of the ominous signs about the fusion of Democrats and Populists. It is a forced and unnatural union. Up till within a very few months nothing seemed more improbable than an effective union of the Democratic and Populist parties. It was brought about—so far as the present condition of angry and suspicious alliance can be called a union brought about at all—by sharp and not too scrupulous political management. But the great vice of it is its suddenness and unexpectedness. The mass of neither party was prepared for the step. Especially in the Democratic party has this startling lurch away from the old moorings aroused great indignation and rebellion, and all the signs now indicate that a Democratic party squarely fighting Populism in this campaign would have cast a larger vote than a Democratic party will in unholy alliance with it. If ever the union was to have been made, it should have come only after much more deliberation and discussion and adjustments on both sides. As it is, the swine have rushed violently down a steep place into the sea.

As for questions of party principle which may never be compromised or surrendered, it may be said, in answer to Prof. Brentano, that there is at least one principle which must be rigid, which must be held as a dogma, and never allowed to become "elastic." That principle is that a party should never commit itself to promises or aims which no party can secure, or to social changes which legislation cannot effect. That is to say, a party must be true to the law of its being as a party. It can work only by and through discussion and law. If you can show that a large class has a remediable grievance, then you may ask a party to take it up; but things opposed to what is written in the constitution of man and society, vague aspirations which cannot be put in the terms of legislation, Utopian schemes—all these a political party is bound to resist on pain of death to itself if it yields. The Populists are really uneasy dreamers, men afflicted with nightmare, whose proposals it is beyond the wit of man to so much as draft in the form of a bill. To have surrendered to them, as the Democrats have done, is to surrender not to a policy but to a mental attitude; and mental attitudes cannot be made the law of the land.

THE ANCIENT CAPITAL OF POLAND.

CRACOW, July 20, 1896.

THE story of Poland and of the Polish na-

tion is a subject of melancholy interest. In America, for the most part, we know little enough about it. We may be aware that the Poles exist, even if they are no longer the masters of their own land, but we seldom realize what are their conditions and aspirations to-day, or how splendid were many features of their history, with all its shadows. In the time of their prosperity they sinned much, and they have suffered more than accordingly. Now, although their country is dead, they are alive as a people, filled with a patriotism whose burning intensity is purified from any vulgar taint of chauvinism by the tragedy of their situation, still struggling and hoping, working for the future and looking back on the past with inextinguishable love and pride.

It is in Cracow that we find most to recall this past. For generations the capital of the country was here, until, after the union with Lithuania, the need was felt of some more central position, and in 1609 Sigismund III. of the Swedish house of Vasa, removed to Warsaw; but here are to be found the remains of the ancient royal castle, and here, until the end, the kings of Poland were crowned, and, with a few exceptions, were buried in the cathedral. Here, too, was the short-lived republic, created at the Congress of Vienna, but suppressed and annexed to Austria in 1846. Facing northward from the hills near the town one can easily see into Russia; to the west, though out of sight, the German frontier is not many leagues away. A few miles distant are the famous salt mines of Wieliczka that produce annually some 60,000 tons, and have been worked for ages. The seven stories, the lowest being more than nine hundred feet below the level of the earth, contain a labyrinth of galleries and chambers, with lakes and with halls, chapels and images, some of them centuries old, hewn from rock salt.

Cracow, supposed to have been founded by the mythical King Cracus, lies in a plain on the upper waters of the Vistula, near the eastern end of the Carpathians. There are about 80,000 inhabitants, of whom something like a quarter are Jews, the real Polish Jews, who in most cases have kept their old characteristics to an extent that is startling in these progressive times. They are distinguishable enough, not only for their Oriental features, but on account of their curious dress—the long, closely-fitting coat that almost reaches the earth and looks like a dressing-gown, in the hand an umbrella in all weathers, on the head a cap with a visor or perhaps a tall silk hat, underneath which, down the sides of the face, fall the two ringlets that give such a curious, unattractive appearance, and that are hardly to be found out of Austria, as in Russia they are forbidden by the Government. On Saturday, the Sabbath, the coat worn seems to be of satin, while the orthodox headgear is a cap with a border of sable fur, looking uncomfortably warm in midsummer. The Jews were greatly favored by Casimir III. the Great, even if not actually invited into the country by him, and the quarter of Cracow where they live, in what was once a separate town, is still called Kasimierz, although, of course, they are no longer confined to it. Their language is the well-known mixture of German and Hebrew, while they often speak Polish none too well. In time many of their peculiarities must disappear, so that they will, at least, dress and speak like the rest of the population, as indeed some of them do now; but the mass of them, for the present, are a class apart, disliked and feared.

Most of the other inhabitants of the city

wear the usual commonplace garb of civilized man. Only the peasants from the country about are still a sight worth seeing, when they appear in their Sunday clothes. We notice a good deal of variety in their dress, presumably according to differences in the prevailing styles in the regions from which they come. Perhaps the most frequent complete type of costume for the men seems to be a felt hat, often with a feather, a tight-fitting jacket of purple or red, with (over it) an open coat that is either red or white with red trimmings, and striped trousers. Both sexes wear high boots, if any, and the women array themselves in bright calico dresses, embroidered bodices, heavily bespangled with coral and blue buttons or knobs, large necklaces of coral or of imitation stones, and brilliant silk or calico handkerchiefs tied about their heads. As elsewhere, modern clothes are gaining ground, nor is every peasant rich enough, even when so inclined, to own and keep in proper condition a correct elaborate attire; hence those that are faultlessly got up are in a small minority. However, there are enough of them, and enough color of all kinds, to make a fascinating picture.

In the way of regular sights, such as appeal to the most ordinary tourist, Cracow is far richer than the few meagre pages devoted to it in Baedeker would lead us to expect. Many of the Polish sovereigns and of the great nobles lived magnificently enough, frequently importing artists from Germany or from Italy to supply the deficiencies of native talent. Both influences are well represented. Thus, on the one hand, we come across not only fine examples of Gothic architecture that suggest Danzig, but also splendid specimens of the sculpture of Veit Stoss and Peter Vischer; on the other, we can see that Italian taste was prominent even before the marriage of Sigismund I. and Bona Sforza (in the early part of the sixteenth century) brought from beyond the Alps men of southern genius, who proceeded to enrich their new home with some really great works of the Renaissance. The glory of the city is the Wawel, the hill on which stands the citadel commanding the town—a castle begun by Casimir the Great, later continued in the style of the Renaissance, with a beautiful *cortile*, but afterwards neglected, plundered of its pictures by the princes of the Saxon line, who sent them to Dresden, and finally turned into a barracks and military hospital by the Austrian Government. Adjoining it is the Gothic cathedral, consecrated in 1359, where are to be found most of the tombs of the Polish kings and their families from Ladislas Lokietek (d. 1333), the father of Casimir; but the last sovereign of all, the weak and unfortunate Stanislas Poniatowski, who was deposed by Catherine the Second of Russia, lies buried in St. Petersburg. Many of these tombs rank high as works of art, forming as a whole a series nearly unequalled in the world. The most impressive are three of those in the Romanesque crypt, the oldest part of the church, the three graves of Poland's national heroes, John Sobieski, Kosciuszko, and Joseph Poniatowski, who was drowned in the Elster after the battle of Leipzig. There is another monument to Kosciuszko, a mile or two away, inside a fort on a hill with an excellent view. It is a mound sixty-five feet high, built in 1820-23 by the efforts of the entire population.

Descending from the Wawel into the streets below, we found much to interest us, and not a little to regret. The old walls were torn down between 1810 and 1820, as were, with

one exception, the twenty gates, in place of which we have a promenade that, pleasant as it is, is an insufficient consolation. The heart of Cracow is the great Rynek (Ring) with the brick church of St. Mary's, an imposing Gothic building, whose interior has recently been restored in a manner which, though it has provoked much criticism, has a certain effectiveness. At any rate, one can turn aside from the fresh paint to admire some splendid specimens of mediæval sculpture and stained-glass windows. In the middle of the Rynek is the Sukiennice, the Cloth Hall, a masterpiece built in the fifteenth century and very satisfactorily restored some years ago; near by it stands the clock-tower, a remnant of the ancient city hall demolished in 1820. Although fifteen churches were burned to the ground in a great fire in 1850, there are said still to be fifty left, several of them well worth a visit; but far better is the superb Gothic courtyard of the library of the University, formerly the University itself, begun by Casimir III. in 1349. For good pictures, we must go to the two fine private galleries, that of Countess Potocka and the museum of Prince Czartoryski, the latter containing a Da Vinci and a Raphael, also a large collection of arms and antiquities. In the cathedral are works of Canova and Thorwaldsen. As regards native modern art there is not very much to be said. The various attempts at neo-Gothic architecture have not been uniformly successful, and in the galleries above the Sukiennice, the average visitor will find little to interest him, except Semiradski's "Living Torches of Nero," and two or three historical paintings by Matejko.

And yet all these works have their importance, as showing that Poland lives. Cracow is not merely a great Austrian fortress, with fifteen thousand men hidden away in invisible defences round about, nor is it only an ancient capital with the Westminster Abbey of an extinct nation. Its memories and monuments not only make past ages vivid; they spur on the men of to-day. It is the seat of a university, of an academy of sciences, a centre of art and thought, of literary activity and of national life. Even in practical politics the Poles of late years have shown a marked ability. The present Austrian Prime Minister, the Minister of Finance, and the special Minister for Galicia are Poles; so is the Minister of Foreign Affairs for the whole of the Dual Empire. As a people the Poles have always been gifted, brave, and patriotic; and in this century they have, under the most disastrous conditions, shown an astonishing vitality, a persistency that hardly seemed to belong to their character. Who, then, can maintain that their part in history is over, and that the time has come when we can say with truth, "Finis Poloniæ"?

ARCHIBALD CARY COOLIDGE.

Correspondence.

SOUTHERN PERPLEXITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on "The South in the New Warfare" in one respect does more, and in another less, than justice to the South. It is hardly true to attribute the present attitude of the South wholly to the new order of politicians represented by Tillman, Watson, etc. The melancholy feature of the situation, to many of us, is that so many of the old and trusted leaders have been carried away. With

some it is probably a mere catering to the Populist element that has to be reckoned with if they are to retain their leadership. But with many more it is an honest infatuation with the free-silver idea that to thinking men is incomprehensible.

On the other hand, there are causes, for which the South is not responsible, that have combined to place her in this position. Owing to the gigantic problem thrust upon her in the sudden and wholesale enfranchisement of the negro, for a whole generation Southern politicians have had practically but one question to study—how to maintain white supremacy. Upon that depended the peace, prosperity, and progress of their country, and everything else was subordinated to it. Hence an order of young politicians has grown up who regard the carrying of elections as the one criterion of a successful politician, the one needful element in political knowledge. Is it surprising that, in a political training of this kind, education in the fundamental principles of political economy is so lacking as to make them an easy prey to political heresies, and that the political conscience has been blunted to a degree that explains its obtuseness to the moral side of this question? This, of course, is no justification; but it may furnish some food for reflection to those responsible for this state of things who now stand aghast at its consequences.

Again, the South has seen the North and East grow rich on the policy of paternalism and protection. Is it strange that in its poverty it should seek its share in the national wealth through the same means? It is only necessary to quote the eloquent warning of the late Gov. Russell to the protectionists of his own State, which was quoted by him in his Auditorium speech in Chicago. He was right. They have sown the wind, and they are in danger of reaping the whirlwind—nay, they are reaping it, and have been reaping it for several years, in the panic and prostration caused by the spread of this heresy.

And, I may add, this is perhaps the strongest consideration, apart from local issues, that makes the thinking Democrat in the South, who believes in sound money and free trade, hesitate about his duty. To so many, a vote for McKinley, directly or indirectly, means the maintenance of the same system of paternalism and class legislation that is responsible for the present financial heresies. And there are many of them hesitating whether it would not be better to take Bryan and free silver, in the hope that, like a dose of salts, it would quickly clear the body politic of its accumulated corruptions. It is for this large and influential class that a third ticket is most necessary. Let it be made clear to them that the hope of the ultimate triumph of true Democratic principles depends on the preservation of a nucleus free from Populism, paternalism, and protection, and they will rally to that standard, and hope for better days.

NORTH CAROLINA.

WEST RALEIGH, N. C.

IDLE FEARS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of yesterday, "Chrysostom" says: "Many McKinley votes from Democrats can be made by proper assurance, from authorized sources, that the South need not dread a renewal of the Reconstruction and Force-bill horrors." I am a born and bred Southern Democrat, and my father was before me. Neither of us ever voted any but the

Democratic ticket. This year, I expect to vote for McKinley, because I am a believer in the financial policy of the Republican party, and believe the financial question to be more important than all others combined. I have never thought that a "Force bill" would injure the South, but, on the contrary, would be of benefit to us. The only effect of a Force bill would be to make all the Southern States where the negroes are in a large majority hold their State and county elections on a different date from the national elections. If this were the case, a very large number of Southerners who have always voted the Democratic ticket only because of the negro question, would, while still voting the "white man's ticket" at the State and county elections, vote for Republican electors and congressmen. The number and standing of the Southerners who would vote the Republican ticket at the national election would be so great and influential that even the bitterest Republican Administration would no more dare to use troops at the polls in the South than in the North or West. And, with a "Force bill," there would be no "horrors."

Very respectfully, A MUGWUMP.

CHARLOTTE, N. C., August 14, 1896.

ENCORE DE L'AUDACE!

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I quote from the circular of Secretary Carlisle, issued from the Treasury August 2, 1896: "Neither silver dollars nor silver certificates are redeemed in gold." Publish this if you dare. ROGER SPRAGUE.

DENVER, COL., August 10, 1896.

[Apparently this should be addressed to somebody who has said that they were so redeemed. Let the galled jade wince! —ED. NATION.]

A DEPRESSION OF THE CURRENCY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One would hardly expect to find in the votes of the Harvard Corporation a hundred and seventy-five years ago any teaching concerning the financial problems of to-day, but here is a vote that should be of interest to every teacher about to accept an engagement on a fixed salary for the academic year 1896-7:

"At a Meeting of the Presid' and Fellows of Harvard College in the Library Nov' 16: 1719.

"Voted,

"1. That the Salary for the Ensuing Year to the Sen' Fellow be £80, to the Second, £70, and to the third £60.

"2. That as an Addition to the Fellows Salary for this Year the Treasurer shall pay £10. out of the College Treasury to Each of the Fellows by reason of the Depression of the Value of the Bills of Credit."

The "depression" continuing, similar allowances were made in 1821, in 1822, and for a number of years afterwards. Nor was the paper money the only form of currency in Colonial New England that varied disastrously in value. All sorts of laws attempting to regulate the value of specie were essayed. Their results were such that Mr. Weeden, in his "Economic History of New England," exclaims, in reference to these experiments, "Alas for the knowledge of Newtons and the administrative skill of Dudleys in the artificial regulation of standards of value!"

The sense of justice of the Harvard Corporation led to the relief of their employees, but could the salaried employees of corporations of our own day—corporations of the genuine soulless sort—expect such treatment?

WILLIAM G. BROWN.

HARVARD COLLEGE LIBRARY,
CAMBRIDGE, MASS., August 14, 1896.

THE "BYRON SCANDAL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent ("C. E. Stowe"), in the *Nation* of July 16, has anticipated me with his remarks on the "Byron Scandal." He speaks, no doubt, with greater authority than any one else could; but no one who had read Mrs. Stowe's article on the subject could be at a loss for her motive in the exposure of Lord Byron's guilt as affirmed by Lady Byron. I wish to add another fact, equally recorded in that article, but quite lost sight of, even at the time, by the crowd of furious assailants who fell upon her for speaking what she believed to be the truth, and a truth that ought to be known. They alleged (the *Quarterly Review* leading the way) that Mrs. Stowe had rushed into print in an indecent hurry to blight a great man's memory.

Thirteen years had elapsed since Lady Byron made her this disclosure before the article appeared (dates, 1856 and 1869). Lady Byron, believing her death to be imminent, had begun by consulting her as to whether she ought to break her lifelong silence on the causes of the separation, for which she had been the object of so many calumnious falsehoods. Mrs. Stowe, having heard her whole story, and fearing the effect of such a step on her fragile health, told her that she thought she "would be entirely justifiable in leaving the truth to be disclosed after her death, and recommended that all the facts necessary should be put in the hands of some persons, to be so published."

Nine years had passed after Lady Byron's death, and Mrs. Stowe waited in vain for some friendly hand to write a justificatory memoir of this noble, much-maligned woman. None such appeared, and Mrs. Stowe broke her silence at last, only on the publication, the wide circulation, and eager reception of the Countess Guiccioli's calumnies.

It is not very gratifying to one's pride in one's country to have to avow a belief that this virulent attack on Mrs. Stowe by the leaders of English public opinion was mainly attributable to three causes: firstly, that Lady Byron was disliked as a cold, correct, virtuous woman, while her husband was an interesting sinner; secondly, that the person she chose to confide her secret to was *an American!* (this nationalist prejudice being distinctly avowed and seasoned with expressions of contempt by several reviews, though the inoffensive reason for this preference was very simply given in Mrs. Stowe's statement); thirdly, that the person preferred was Mrs. Stowe, whose anti-slavery action made her unacceptable to the then Tory upholders of the "domestic institution."

I hope we have long outgrown the two latter prejudices.—I am, etc.,

AN ENGLISHWOMAN.

AUGUST 5, 1896.

MORAL EVOLUTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The incorrect reference to John Stuart Mill which is pointed out in the discriminating notice of "Moral Evolution" in your issue

of August 13, I discovered a few days before the book was published, but too late even for an *erratum*. The needed correction is made in the second edition, which appeared in May. So entire a reversal of an author's meaning re-emphasizes the necessity of verifying references. The mistake has been overlooked in the other notices I have seen.

Theology, which is only incidental to the purpose of the book, is considered briefly in view of certain ethical modifications of doctrine, and in answer to the objection that evolution invalidates essential Christian beliefs. The recovery of the ethical value of Christianity is going on more or less rapidly in all Protestant denominations. The transcendence of Jesus is seen to consist in moral perfection rather than in omnipotence and omniscience. But this is not Unitarianism, the Unitarians themselves being judges, for, with cordial approval of my ethical positions, they have expressed decided dissent from my opinions on the person of Christ and the supernatural. Orthodoxy is a shifting term. The heterodox of to-day are the orthodox of to-morrow. Greek Christianity has as good title as Latin Christianity to be called orthodox. The ethical significance of Christian beliefs, the immanence of God, and the moral transcendence of Jesus are in harmony with the views of the Greek fathers, and, as I think, of the writers of the New Testament. I say this, not in defence of "old bottles," which there is good authority for not refilling, but only to suggest that the disappearance of a mechanical supernaturalism is not a reduction of essential truths, but rather a restoration of the real value of Christianity.

Yours respectfully, GEORGE HARRIS.

BAR HARBOR, MAINE, August 15, 1898.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co.'s fall announcements include, besides the Centenary (*de luxe*) Edition of Burns's works, in four volumes prepared by William E. Henley and T. F. Henderson, and besides the uniform edition of Bret Harte's works, already mentioned, the following: 'Christianity and Social Problems,' by Lyman Abbott, D.D.; 'The Spiritual Sense, of Dante's Divina Commedia,' by William T. Harris; 'A Phrase-Book from the Poetic and Dramatic Works of Robert Browning,' by Miss Marie Ada Molineux, A.M., Ph.D.; 'Letters of Victor Hugo,' edited by Paul Meurice, in two volumes; 'Some Memories of Hawthorne,' by Mrs. Rose Hawthorne Lathrop; Lowell's Complete Poetical Works, in one volume, uniform with the Cambridge Edition of Longfellow, Whittier, Holmes, and Browning; 'Whitman: A Study,' by John Burroughs, and 'A Year in the Fields,' by the same writer, with illustrations by Clifton Johnson; 'Authors and Friends,' by Mrs. James T. Fields; 'Talks about Autographs,' by Dr. George Birkbeck Hill; 'George Fox,' by Thomas Hodgkin; 'William H. Seward,' by Thornton K. Lothrop; 'The Life of John Wellborn Root,' memorable for his share in the architectural planning of the World's Fair at Chicago, by Miss Harriet Monroe; 'Chapters from a Life,' by Elizabeth Stuart Phelps; a translation of Tsountas's 'Mycenaean Age,' with numerous illustrations; 'Talks on Writing English,' by Prof. Arlo Bates; 'Mere Literature, and Other Essays,' by Prof. Woodrow Wilson; 'Governments and Parties of Continental Europe,' in two volumes, by A. Law-

rence Lowell; an illustrated edition of John Fiske's 'American Revolution'; 'A-Birding on a Bronco,' by Miss Florence A. Merriam; and 'Sister Jane, her Friends and Neighbors,' by Joel Chandler Harris.

The Century Co. will publish in October 'The Cat and the Cherub, and Other Stories,' by Chester Bailey Fernald.

Brentano's have nearly ready 'Short-Suit Whist,' by Val. W. Starnes.

Mrs. Burton Harrison has edited for A. S. Barnes & Co. a new edition of the late Mrs. Lamb's 'History of New York,' now in the press. She will add a chapter on the externals of the modern city, with fresh illustrations; and this will also be printed separately in a form to match the original work.

Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago, announce 'The Land of the Castanet,' chapters on Spain by H. C. Chatfield-Taylor which have been appearing in the *Cosmopolitan*.

Dickens's stories from the Christmas numbers of *Household Words* and *All the Year Round* (1852-1867) form another and perhaps the last of the Macmillan reprints edited by the younger Dickens. Since it reached our shelves the editor himself has passed away, and has done with the pious writing of bibliographical introductions altogether. He had herestrung together "Mugby Junction," "No Thoroughfare," "Mrs. Lirriper's Lodgings," "The Holly-Tree Inn," and many less-known tales from those annual issues which Dickens abandoned because of imitators. From the same house we have another Balzac volume in Clara Bell's translation and Dent's ever tasteful dress, 'Pierrette and the Abbé Birotteau,' and Daudet's 'Artists' Wives,' translated by Laura Ensor for Dent's series; together with 'Macbeth' and 'Antony and Cleopatra,' in the Dent "Temple Shakspeare." An etched copy of a so-called Cleopatra in the British Museum, and a view of the interior of the old Swan Theatre, are the frontispieces of these dainty booklets. Not much bigger is Macmillan's 'Guide to English Literature,' compounded of Matthew Arnold's review of Stopford Brooke's Primer, the same critic's notice of Gray in Ward's 'English Poets,' and John Morley's address (in 1887) on the study of literature. This will be found a wholesome pocket companion by any one bent on the discriminating pursuit of reading and letters. Finally, Prof. Monro's compact edition of all the attributed works of Homer (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) challenges attention alike for its beauty and its convenience. A thin paper saves from bulkiness the more than one thousand pages. There are no novelties in the text, which follows the respective best authorities, and there are no notes. The Greek font is bold.

In the uniform Mark Twain of Messrs. Harper have lately appeared 'The Prince and the Pauper,' and the collection of scraps entitled 'Life on the Mississippi.' We mean nothing depreciatory by the word scraps; on the contrary, these short chapters are highly profitable reading. Noticeable is Mark Twain's testimony in favor of Capt. Basil Hall and Mrs. Trollope. We should have liked references from as well as to the appendices; and the work was worth an index.

Scotland and The Orient determine the contents of the two latest volumes of Messrs. Scribner's short "Stories by English Authors," with a range of selection from Scott and Miss Mitford to Kipling and Ian Mac-laren.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have usefully united, under the title 'America and Europe: A

Study of International Relations,' a *North American* paper, "The United States and Great Britain," by David A. Wells, ex-Minister Phelps's sound Brooklyn address on the Monroe Doctrine, and Carl Schurz's address at the Washington Arbitration Conference, on "Arbitration in International Disputes." These form a peace document deserving a circulation commensurate with Jingoism and pseudo-patriotism. The same firm have begun a reissue and enlargement of the late Alexander Johnston's 'American Orations,' under the editorship of Prof. James Albert Woodburn of Indiana University. The first volume shows the plan of omission, abridgment, insertion, and annotation in the interest of further study. There will be three more, the last being new to the series. At a time when Boy Orators are in vogue, it is well worth while to go back to these landmarks in our political debate.

The Boston city fathers from time to time embark in book-making, and can now point to a goodly number of "Memorials" of eminent fellow-citizens. Some of these have been the stoned prophets of the anti-slavery agitation, and with them has been associated the late Frederick Douglass, whom the city authorities publicly commemorated in December of last year. Mr. Albion W. Tourgée's oration and Mr. Richard T. Greener's personal reminiscences form the substance of the volume, which is a sign of the times that we fear our Southern brethren can hardly read aright. Douglass was one of America's greatest orators, and he was often heard in Boston, where, after the passage of the Fugitive Slave Law and before he was ransomed, he might at any time have been seized for reduction to chatteldom. Perhaps this latter circumstance explains as logically as anything the municipal honors paid to him. The Memorial contains a portrait of this remarkable man.

A sumptuous leather-bound volume forms the First Year-Book of the Society of Mayflower Descendants incorporated last year in this city. It contains, with many pictorial embellishments, a list of the *Mayflower*'s passengers, with brief biographical items rather than sketches, the *Mayflower* compact, the proceedings at the first annual dinner of the Society, and membership lists (a) alphabetical, (b) by maiden name of married women, and (c) by descent from the respective Pilgrim fathers. It appears from the Constitution that any lineal descendant, over eighteen years of age, wherever resident, is eligible for admission.

To the frequent inquiry, Where can I find a list of works representing both sides of the currency question? the Baker & Taylor Co., 5 E. 16th St., New York, furnish a convenient response in a bulletin of such works, with price affixed and an indication of the side espoused.

Georg Herwegh was the poet laureate of the German revolutionary party which finally came to grief in the movement of 1848. He was in exile for several years before that movement broke out, and his only connection with it was as head of the German colony of Paris which undertook an expedition in aid of the insurrection in Baden. The letters published by Marcel Herwegh ('Briefe von und an Georg Herwegh,' Munich: Albert Langen) have but little bearing on the matter. The most interesting pages of the book are those which contain a lively account of the expedition, written by Herwegh's wife, a woman of great courage and intellectual gifts, who half a century ago had as thoroughly emancipated her-

self from conventional restraints as the most advanced "new woman" of our day. The description she furnishes of the ludicrous incompetence of the men who undertook to found a German Democratic Republic, only confirms the impression produced by almost everything that has been published by those who took part in that foredoomed failure. That so impotent an attempt should have thrown the governments of Germany into such paroxysms of fear, is a striking commentary on the cowardice of officialism.

The French Revolution of 1848 is lightly touched upon in M. Denormandie's 'Notes et Souvenirs' (Paris: Léon Chaillay). He was at that time a young man, and confines himself to describing scenes that passed under his eyes; what little he does say is in direct support of the view that the expulsion of Louis Philippe was an offence against good government and civilization. The greater portion of his book, however, M. Denormandie fills with an account of the siege of Paris in 1870 and of the doings of the Commune. His important official position as *maire* of the Eighth Arrondissement during the period in question invests his narrative with peculiar interest, although he gives us little or nothing actually new. He describes with some minuteness the detailed methods adopted in the distribution of bread and meat in order to stave off famine as long as possible, and throws some side-lights on the social life of Paris during its period of greatest trial. What he has to say about the Commune can only deepen the detestation of right-minded men for the nameless atrocities of those desolate days.

The Baron d'Haussez is remembered in French history chiefly because he directed the expedition against Algiers in 1829 in his capacity of Minister of the Marine. The ministry of which he formed a part was that presided over by Polignac, and its arbitrary measures, which were heartily sanctioned, if not suggested, by Charles X. himself, led to the overthrow of the Government of the Restoration by the Revolution of July, 1830. D'Haussez, escaped to England and occupied the leisure of exile in writing the Memoirs of his political and administrative life. The first volume of these has just been published ('Mémoires du Baron d'Haussez,' Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's), and extends from the Restoration in 1814 to the death of Louis XVIII. in 1824. During this period D'Haussez was a member of the first Chamber of Deputies, the "Chambre introuvable," and Prefect in turn of the Departments of the Landes, the Gard, and the Isère. He here deals comparatively briefly with events, and indulges almost entirely in brilliant, though somewhat malicious, portraits of the men of the Restoration with whom he came in contact. A curious mixture they were: many of them had served every government in succession from the *ancien régime* to the Empire; some were returned *émigrés* who failed to understand the changes that had taken place during their absence, and expected offices and pensions for their fidelity to the Bourbons; a few were men who had waited patiently at home for the Restoration, obeying but not serving the previous administrations. The pen portraits would be interesting rather than valuable for historical purposes, had the volume not been most carefully edited by two well-known students of the period, the late Comte de Circourt and the Comte de Puymaigre, who have supplied excellent biographical notes rectifying the malignant wit of the author. They have also prefaced the

volume with an admirable general introduction, dealing with D'Haussez himself and the principles of the Government of the Restoration. Students will look forward to the publication of the succeeding volume or volumes in which D'Haussez has to do with his political life, covering generally the policy and proceedings of the Polignac ministry, and more especially the dispatch of the expedition to Algiers.

M. Pierre Coubertin passes from athletics and education to contemporary history in his 'Évolution Française sous la Troisième République' (Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.). His chronicle is more valuable for record of fact, of parliamentary votes, of rapidly changing ministries, than for large grasp or philosophic insight. Indeed, he frankly condenses his chronicle from contemporary newspaper or periodical comment. This fact sufficiently indicates the defects as well as the usefulness of the book.

Two numbers of the *Boletín de la Sociedad Geográfica de Lima* (Peru), corresponding to the proceedings of the second and third trimesters of 1895, have come to hand. The publication of Antonio Raimondi's itinerary continues, the ground covered in the present instalments being the old mule routes from Lima to Huancayo, Tarma, and Cerro de Pasco. There is also an interesting record of travel in 1866 from Huanta to Lima by way of the famous old mercury-mining town of Huancavelica. John Ball's valuable "Contributions to the Study of the Flora of the Peruvian Cordilleras" takes up the composite plants, *asclepias*, *gentians*, *heliotropes*, and other less numerous groups, in the present issue. Another botanical paper, which would prove of value to the traveller in those parts, is a list of the common names of the principal Peruvian plants, followed by the scientific names, prepared by Manuel García y Merino. The paper of widest interest in the two numbers of the *Boletín* is that on the languages of the central Andean region co-existent with the Keshua ("Quichua" of some writers), by Dr. Leonardo Villar. The discussion touches the Aymará, Cauqui, Yunca, and Puquina dialects, and ends with a consideration of the antiquity of the Keshua and of the question whether it may be a primitive language. Dr. Villar answers this question in the affirmative. Nothing new is adduced in support of this contention, but the argument is presented fully, and is accompanied with references to all the important works bearing upon this interesting and most remarkable American language. A new feature in the *Boletín* is the commencement of a series of Peruvian views, beautifully reproduced by the heliograph process.

We have received the prospectus of a new quarterly *Magazine of Americana*, to be published by George Watkins at Indianapolis; bibliographical in its nature, "containing a register of new, and notes on and extracts from old, books and pamphlets relating to America, the West Indies, and the South Sea." The first number is to appear in October.

Harvard has had a professor of music for about a quarter of a century, and Prof. Paine's pupils include some of the best-known composers and critics in the country. A few years ago Yale followed Harvard's example by appointing Mr. Parker professor of music, and with the opening of the college year Mr. E. A. MacDowell will take his place as professor at Columbia. He will have the assistance of several New York and Boston critics, who will

lecture on historic and æsthetic topics. There has been much discussion, especially on the part of disappointed candidates for the new chair at Columbia, as to the propriety of appointing a mere composer for this important position, when such a sublimely important being as a musical critic and analytic lecturer might have been had for the asking. The only real question was: Are Profs. Paine, Parker, and MacDowell composers only, or are they men of general culture and special erudition, who can teach and lecture as well as compose? Every one who knows these three men is aware that the alternate inquiry must be answered decidedly in the affirmative. New York music-lovers will have special reason to congratulate themselves that Mr. MacDowell, who has no superior among the living composers of Europe, will now be brought back to his native-city, after his many years of residence in Germany and Boston. He is of the same age as Paderewski, and these are the two young composers of whom the best things may be expected in the future.

Harvard, Yale, and Columbia are by no means the only American colleges that have a musical department. Most if not all of the large female colleges have one, and of other colleges we have before us documents showing that good work is done at them. At the University of Wisconsin instruction is given in vocal and instrumental music, history, harmony, and most of the other branches, the only unacademic thing in the catalogue being the mention of guitar, banjo, "mandolin, and other orchestral instruments." Oberlin is peculiarly fortunate in having among its instructors so learned and interesting a writer as Prof. Edward Dickinson. Under his guidance a musical library has been amassed which has few equals in this country, and he has published several little books which will be found extremely useful by all who wish to study the history and literature of music. They are a 'Guide to Musical History' and a syllabus of 'The History of Church Music,' and are published at Oberlin, O., by Pearce & Randolph.

We have received from the Berlin Photographic Company, No. 14 East Twenty-third Street, New York, a sample of their reproductions from the precious art collection of the Hermitage at St. Petersburg, just undertaken. There will be eighty-four of these heliogravure plates, of which the average size will be 14x19 inches, and more than a quarter of the whole will be Rembrandts; Van Dyck, Murillo, Rubens, Raphael, and Ruysdael ranking next numerically. Three Titians, two Da Vincis, two Lucas Cranachs, and a Botticelli may also be named. The whole series will be issued in seven parts, at \$300.

The library of the late Prof. Ernst Curtius is to be sold. The value of such a possession to some of our younger American universities is obvious, and it is to be hoped that our educational benefactors will not neglect this rare opportunity. In the opinion of Dr. Weyl, chief librarian of the Royal Library of Berlin, the Curtius collection is the most important of its kind that has been offered to the public since the death of Otto Jahn. It consists of about 3,500 bound volumes, and of at least as many more rare and valuable treatises in pamphlet form. Classical philology is represented in both old and new editions, and these volumes derive an incalculable value from the fact that many of them contain innumerable marginal comments and conjectures from the hand of the great scholar. There

are also the monumental publications from original sources, like the 'Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum et Græcarum,' as well as sets of all the more important periodicals relating to archaeology, epigraphy, and numismatics. Further information may be had upon application to Mr. Charles H. Genung, Nutley, N. J., or by communicating directly with Prof. Herman Grimm, Matthæikirchplatz 5, Berlin, W.

—Of high interest is the tenth part of the Fourteenth Report of the English Historical Manuscripts Commission, containing a calendar of the American papers in the Dartmouth collection. As Secretary of State for the American Department and Privy Seal from 1772 to 1782, the Earl of Dartmouth was the centre of American correspondence. The calendar amply proves the value of this; and the mere summary of the trade reports, intercepted letters, suggestions for peace and union, from loyalists and philanthropists as well as from statesmen, and the political correspondence passing through his hands, leads one to regret that the Commission did not give Mr. B. F. Stevens liberty to print in full the rich material found. Some of it has been reproduced in his Facsimiles, but the larger part is new. From the Stamp Act excitement to the end of the war, letters and reports of every description poured in upon Lord Dartmouth. It was not from a want of information that the Cabinet failed to appreciate the gravity of the rising spirit of opposition in the colonies, for merchants, officials, and military officers presented memorials and schemes sufficient in number to have determined any and every difference between mother country and colony. The non-importation agreements of 1765 and 1770 and the tea episode naturally became unimportant by the side of actual hostilities in 1775; yet there is hardly a paper noted in this calendar which is not precious as history and as personal expression of political opinion.

—The publication of the Hutchinson letters, and Franklin's agency in the matter, are mentioned. The visit to America of the mysterious French agent, Bonvouloir, is also incidentally brought in, and, under the influence of wine, the agent seems to have told more of his mission to the British than was judicious. He described Putnam as "a good-natured, civil, and brave soldier, but a headstrong, ignorant, and stupid general." Ward was held "very cheap," and the American officers were "perfectly ignorant of their business," and of moderate, or rather "mean parts." They had no settled or well-digested plan, and more jealousy than unanimity existed among their chiefs. This was before the appointment of Washington. Putnam sends to Major Moncrief his daughter, and writes: "If he does not like her he can send her back, and she will be taken care of and provided with a Whig husband." Ambrose Serle, a regular correspondent of the minister, in 1776 says of Charles Lee: "There is something so eccentric in the man's temper, and such a Vacancy of Principle, that it is impossible for all his Talents to support a Reputation here or anywhere." Joseph Reed is "an able man, but full of chicanery, intrigue, and duplicity." As early as 1774 Carleton proposes to reinforce Gage with some Indians. On the other hand, there are some interesting letters from Eleazer Wheelock about his Indian school at Lebanon; and not a little on colonial land companies, churches, and colonial appointments. Mr. Douglas

Brymner has calendared the Canadian papers, and it is reasonable to say that two men better fitted for preparing this volume could hardly have been found. The index is very full and satisfactory.

—In the *Revue Bleue* of July 25 M. Jean Le Pelletier describes a curious experiment in co-education at the French court in the sixteenth century. The innovation, which sharply contrasts with French ideas in the Middle Ages as well as in modern times, seems to have been due to Catherine de Medici, who, says M. Le Pelletier somewhat surprisingly, was an admirable mother and devoted to all her children. The King, Henry II, cooperated heartily in the scheme, moved by his tender solicitude for the Dauphin, the future Francis II. At the time of the marriage of Anthony of Bourbon and Jeanne d'Albret, Henry withdrew from the wedding festivities, and, with scarcely any following, hurried to Saint-Germain, where the royal school was placed, "pour veoir," for so he wrote to M. d'Humières, governor of the Dauphin, "Messeigneurs ses enfants et pour en avoir tout seul la bonne chère." Besides the children of the King there were the little Queen of Scots, the young Duke of Lorraine, and more than forty others from the noblest families in France. Over 300 officers, teachers, and attendants were assigned to the service of this school. The course of study included not only Latin, but the vernacular and Italian, history, geography, astronomy, and mathematics; and while the boys were instructed in the arts of chivalry, the girls were initiated into quite commonplace household duties. But M. Le Pelletier thinks the experiment a failure. Indeed, he attributes to it the effeminateness of the later Valois kings, and a certain undesirable boldness in Mary Stuart and Marguerite of Valois. He declares with Talleyrand that the empire of woman is founded upon her "adorable faiblesse et sa divine douceur."

—The most interesting feature of the current number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* is M. Louis Couve's description of certain private houses excavated at Delos in 1894. They belong to the second and the first century B. C., when Delos, under Roman patronage, attained its highest commercial importance, and was filled with magnificent arcades and with the homes of wealthy merchants. The structures here figured give evidence of the wealth and refinement of their owners, resembling in decorative luxury the most elegant houses of Pompeii. Their plan approaches the classical Athenian arrangement of the fifth century rather than the Roman, and is characterized by the peristyle and the open court, entered directly by a long passage from the front door. Around the court the rooms are disposed in such a manner as to secure the open-air life of a warm climate, and at the same time complete seclusion from the street. Hence they are lighted from the inner court, and windows which open on the street admit the light from a height of ten feet or more. In one case only a window gives directly on the "Street of the Theatre," at the usual modern height; but this exception is due to the architect's intention to make the window, with its marble frame and bronze grill, an effective feature of the façade. In some respects these houses agree with the ideal plan of Vitruvius, while in others there is a wide departure, necessitated by the peculiarities of the site. The cistern, vaulted and strongly built, is an im-

portant provision in all, as might be expected when the rainfall is the chief source of supply, yet not a drop falls for three months in the summer. As many as three cisterns are found in the best appointed houses, communicating with each other, as Vitruvius describes, and by this communication filtering the water for drinking purposes.

—The domestic life which is here disclosed had luxuries and refinements, while it dispensed with certain comforts and even decencies. The sleeping-rooms and the slaves' quarters are cramped, ill-ventilated, and destitute of ornament. But the decoration of the larger apartments, the salon, the dining-room, and the *exedra*, is charming in taste and artistic effect, and in some instances is preserved in unimpaired brilliancy. The floors of such rooms and of the central court are paved in mosaic of novel and pleasing patterns; the walls are painted according to a decorative system at once sober and elegant, which recalls the best Pompeian style—that of the House of Sallust and of the Faun. Along the most graceful of the friezes runs a garland of flowers and bouquets of gay colors, amid which fits a Cupid with sky-blue wings and scarlet mantle, picking flowers or playing with a dog. Others, less conventional, contained masks of warriors, and Medusas, painted with great delicacy of color and design. The refinements of life were lavished on these reception rooms, whose shelves and niches indicate the provision made for statues and figurines and other bibelots. These have, in fact, been found in such excellence and number as to encourage high expectations. A "Diadumenos," perfectly preserved and superior in style to all known replicas of the famous work of Polyclitus, is the pearl of these discoveries, which warrant a general exploration of Delos as the most promising field of operations for the French School of Archaeology after the completion of their labors at Delphi.

—Mr. Theodore Bacon's recent address on "What the Lawyer Owes to Society," delivered before the graduating class of the Yale Law School, has been issued in the form of a pamphlet by the university. He urges upon his hearers that they owe to society something more than the mere discharge of professional obligations. These he sums up in the three commands: "Thou shalt not rob thy client"; "Thou shalt not impose on the court"; and "Thou shalt not befool or play tricks upon thy professional adversary." Yet the lawyer who can say, "All these have I kept from my admission to the bar up," will not have satisfied the larger and loftier requirements of the profession. "Unless you have done something, as your powers and your opportunities shall have served you, toward the formation of a just opinion in aiding the growth of jurisprudence and social advance through law—still better, toward the restraint and confusion of crude, unwise, and mischievous intermeddling with existing laws—you will have fallen short of satisfying the full scope of the obligations you assume to-day." Mr. Bacon gives several illustrations of the sort of effort which he would have lawyers make for the amelioration of things in general, and instances of what great lawyers have done in the past. While admitting to its widest extent the scope of the obligation contended for by Mr. Bacon, we are inclined to think that the class in this community which stands most in need of being reminded of it are not the fledglings of the law. According to our experience, there is

more generous enthusiasm for improvement in the junior than in the senior bar, while a judge who remembers that he owes anything to society in the way intended by Mr. Bacon is a rare bird. In the movements in this city either for law reform or against corruption in the high places of the law, the impetus has generally been given by the younger members of the profession; when any attempt is made in these directions, it is not the judges who rush forward to help it. In fact, were we called upon to get together an audience signally in need of being reminded of what the lawyer owes to society, we should feel no hesitation in distributing tickets generally among the judiciary and the leaders of the bar; to deliver the lecture, we should retain the services of a junior who still remembered what he owed to himself.

—One duty which bench and bar owe to society, and which is not mentioned by Mr. Bacon, is to do whatever is in their power to make the road to professional honors and emoluments such that dishonorable practices shall not be the readiest means of advancement. "The road to power"—and, we may add, to wealth—"will be trod"; but if to get forward on it requires base arts, honorable men will look for other paths to preferment, and the rewards of the law will more and more fall to charlatans and rogues. We have not only made the judiciary elective, but our system of nomination makes it necessary for the candidate for a judgeship in most cases either to buy his place outright, or to flatter and curry favor with a "boss," who always expects, and generally gets, favors of some sort in return. What is to be expected of judges who get on to the bench in this way? They live in an atmosphere of abuses, to which they have long been accustomed and have grown callous. One of these is the open and almost avowed solicitation of business. This is one of the essential marks of a trade as distinguished from a profession. An honorable lawyer cannot solicit business, any more than he can advertise. But unless solicitation is punished, it will certainly be practised, and the consequence is that the soliciting lawyer will get the clients, while the scrupulous one waits for them.

THACHER'S DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

The Continent of America: Its Discovery and Its Baptism. An Essay on the Nomenclature of the Old Continents; a Critical and Bibliographical Inquiry into the Naming of America and into the Growth of the Cosmography of the New World, etc. By John Boyd Thacher. New York: W. E. Benjamin. 1896. 4to, xviii, 270 pp.

THERE is something rather startling in the opening avowal of this book, that "its chief purpose is to establish the time and place of the naming of America." Such language would seem to indicate that there had been some unsettling of such well-rooted convictions as were long ago fixed by Humboldt, and since fortified by Major, to say nothing of living scholars. It would seem to signify that the unbalanced judgments of Hurlbut, De Bris, Marcou, and a few others were become rampant realities. Inasmuch as these inconstant vagaries have not disturbed anybody, and since our author himself acknowledges that the circumstances of the "baptism" of the continent had been "understood for fifty years," there seemed hardly occasion to "establish" the facts, unless there was new mate-

rial to bring forth and fresh arrangements of old material to present. The book in fact presents neither alternative; and, so far as the naming of the continent goes, it is the old story as told by a score of others. Even so important a monograph on the subject as the Waldseemüller of Davezac, Mr. Thacher quotes at second hand, though he is at pains to prove that critic wrong in regard to the priority of the unique copy of the 'Cosmographie Introductio' now in the Lenox Library, which the late Henry C. Murphy five-and-twenty years ago pronounced a made-up copy.

As to the very act of naming the continent, Mr. Thacher fails to comprehend the alternative of names which Waldseemüller offered, namely, Amerige (i. e., the land of Americus) or America (the feminine form of the explorer's name). This distinction was equally disregarded by Mr. Mason, in an article in *Harper's Monthly*, October, 1892—from which Mr. Thacher borrows some points—as was pointed out at the time in these columns by Prof. Edward G. Bourne. Mr. Thacher, however, makes, in his translation, a blunder which Mr. Mason avoided. The sentence in the original text requires these alternative names to be in the accusative case, Amerigen (or Amerigem, as sometimes copied) and Americam. To English the sentence requires them to be given in the nominative form Amerige and America; the last Mr. Thacher gives correctly, but he keeps the other Amerigen. And this he does in every instance where he repeats his version of the Latin.

Mr. Thacher found it necessary to make a part of his subject the discovery by Columbus of the Antilles, and by Vesputius of the mainland. This leads him to a discussion of Columbus's landfall, which he rightly enough identifies with Watling's Island, in accordance with the present general opinion of scholars; but though he enumerates the principal critics upon this point, he seems not aware of the hydrographical deductions of Alexander Agassiz, nor of the nautical reasoning of Markham.

His other point is, that it was owing to the prior acquaintance of Vesputius with the northern continent that the little coterie at St.-Dié selected his name for the New World. In this he is not content with the fact, which Humboldt long ago emphasized, that it was not this uncertain voyage of 1497, but the surprising developments on the coast of South America, and Vesputius's description of them, which brought his fame into the ascendant while that of Columbus was declining. This is furthermore abundantly made manifest by the fact that the name "America" was applied to South America, and it was more than a lifetime before it was extended to North America in the Mercator map of 1588.

In following the arguments and representations of Varnhagen and Fiske—without, however, mentioning the latter—Mr. Thacher seeks to make it appear that HARRISSE joins with these scholars in accrediting Vesputius with this undertaking of 1497. The fact is, however, that, with all his concessions—and he makes them fairly enough and with some necessity—HARRISSE reaches no stronger conclusion than that the voyage is "not improbable"; and that is certainly about as far as sound and circumspect critics can go. With the arguments pro and con respecting this contested voyage of 1497, the English-reading public have of late been amply informed by the works of Markham and Fiske. Markham

supports, without the best grounds, the old theory of an alibi for Vesputius. He identifies the incidents enumerated by Vesputius with those which characterized the voyage of Pinzon and Solis which took place after 1506. He appeals to the contemporary knowledge of Las Casas, and avers that those who discredit Herrera throw doubt on Las Casas, whose very language Herrera copies. Fiske has for the most part reiterated the arguments of Varnhagen, and they are now in a briefer way repeated by Mr. Thacher, who, to assist the student, reprints the original mongrel Italian of 1505, the Latin version of 1507, and the English rendering published by Quaritch in 1893. While there are some considerations which lead one to hesitate before wholly rejecting the voyage, the case is not helped by that reckless criticism which either ignores what is in the way, or by forced interpretation turns such obstacles about. The evidence of the Cantino and Canerio maps is of course additional to what Varnhagen employed, but this and that of the Peter Martyr map of 1511 by no means indicate that such a Vesputian voyage could but have induced their configuration of a coast northwest of Cuba. That such a coast did not result exclusively from this voyage of 1497 is clearly indicated by the gap in the coast line, where Vesputius says there was none. Again, it is an entire assumption on the part of the advocates of the voyage that Vesputius's own narrative called the country of his landfall Lariab and not Parias; the former name never appears again in accounts of that region, and the Latin corrected version is just as likely to be right as the careless mongrel Italian, and even more so.

It is somewhat amusing to find Mr. Thacher taking "comfort in following the lead" of HARRISSE, when he apparently knows that *maestrale* means northwest, and not northerly, as HARRISSE translates it, and for the reason that HARRISSE's interpretation carries Vesputius, not to the California coast, where a northwest course (overland) would have taken him, but to the Carolina coast, by a track which in rounding Florida really boxed the compass, whence it was possible to return by an eastward course to Europe. It is always much better in historical problems to be left in doubt than to seek consistency by perverting evidence.

It is a pity that Mr. Thacher had not applied to this Vesputian voyage some of the caution with which he discusses the claim for the Apian map of 1520 to be the earliest "engraved chart and authentic map to bear the name of America." It certainly is the first map with that characteristic which bears a positive date; but to contend for its having that honor dogmatically is to discredit the views of such scholars as Davezac and HARRISSE, who by analysis place the undated Hauslab gores before it; and the Nordenskiöld gores have the same priority allowed them. Mr. Thacher leaves out of consideration the Tross or Boulengier gores, for which a similar claim is also made. Scholars also generally credit what is known as the 1515 globe of Schöner, though Mr. Thacher treats that with the same distrust. In discrediting the Hauslab gores as marking a state of geographical knowledge anterior to the Apian map of 1520, he gives no recognition to the belief which Varnhagen and Davezac entertained, that those gores were the work of Waldseemüller; nor does he seem to understand that the gores are a production distinct from the Hauslab mounted globe, which HARRISSE associates with

the Schöner globe of 1515, and which Gallois in 1890 strove to identify with the globe (which Waldseemüller often mentions) on which he said he was obliged to omit much that he put on his lost map, and which he intended to "conform to the descriptions of Vesputius."

With all his dependence upon Harris, it is apparent that Mr. Thacher has not studied him carefully. He says that "Harris has so effectually disposed of the claims of the Cabots that no scholar of to-day seriously contends for English priority" in discovering the mainland of North America. Harris really undertakes to prove that the date of the Cabot landfall as given on the Cabot mappemonde, June 24, 1497, is too late by two or three weeks, which would bring it early in that month; while by Mr. Thacher's own statements of the length of Vesputius's outward voyage, whether we take the Italian or Latin text of the narrative—and they do not agree—the Cabot landfall was a month earlier than the imagined sighting of the Honduras coast by Vesputius. If Mr. Thacher had said instead that Markham had disposed of the Cabot claim by reason of his denying that Cabot, in sighting Cape Breton, saw the mainland at all, there might be more question; but he appeals to Harris, who makes Cabot's landfall on the main of Labrador.

Mr. Thacher goes over the early maps largely for the purpose of showing that the geographers of that time very soon, or within four or five years of the discovery by Columbus, began to play fast and loose—as they certainly did—with the notion that the new lands constituted an independent continent beyond the Antilles. In this belief he would place Vesputius in the forefront, as he perhaps was, though the claim of Columbus to have reached India was denied by Peter Martyr even earlier. In all this Mr. Thacher seems not to have heard, while deploring the loss of all of Christopher Columbus's cartographical handiwork, of what is really the most important development of the last few years, the discovery, by Prof. Wieser, of a map which Bartholomew Columbus, doubtless with the privity of his brother, carried to Rome, after the last voyage, in which the two brothers were companions. This sketch-map shows that they had reached the conclusion that a sea lay beyond the Isthmus of Panama, which one must track if one would reach the Ganges and return to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope.

In his treatment of the early maps to establish identifications of landmarks Mr. Thacher is certainly not alone in the failure to understand that the most important factor in the problem is not longitude, or latitude, or even distance, but the course which they pursued in dependence upon the compass or the north star, since this is really the only element which is constant and immutable. A recognition of this principle would throw out more than one of his conclusions.

When he speaks of the La Cosa map as "the first map of the world ever made," it is hard to divine what Mr. Thacher means. If he intended to restrict that description to those which show any part of the New World, how would he class the Ptolemy maps of 1482, which show Greenland? Again, when he assumes that the continental coast trending north in the Cantino map was the result of Vesputius's exploration, he ignores the second voyage of Cabot, and sundry references to others than Spanish ships on the coast at an earlier date. Besides, there are a multitude of other interpretations to be disposed of—perhaps easily—

like Stevens's theory of a "bogus Cuba," and Markham's belief that what is usually supposed to be the point of Florida was in reality the northern cape at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay. Once more, when Mr. Thacher speaks of the possibility of the student chancing upon the facsimile of the Stobnicza map made at Amsterdam (by Müller, not Müller, as he prints it) to gain knowledge of it, before his own facsimile became known, he seems to ignore the reproduction of it which Mr. John Russell Bartlett introduced into the Carter-Brown Catalogue twenty years ago, and the numerous reproductions which have since been laid before American scholars.

Instances of misconception like these—and if we had more space we could multiply them—show that Mr. Thacher, while in his convenient series of maps he puts us under obligation, really has added nothing to our existing facilities beyond giving another resort for the student. It is well enough to have this series of maps at the end of his books, fourteen in all, ending with Ortelius, in the exact size of the originals, but this precision does not help scholarship. Mr. Thacher's book has evidently—as, indeed, he acknowledges—grown in his hands beyond his original purpose, and a profuse appropriation of paper has made it additionally larger. The features which mark the author's particular propensities are the attention which he gives to water-marks and binder's folds, the passion of a collector.

RECENT EDUCATIONAL WORKS.

The Common-School System of Germany and its Lessons to America. By Levi Seelye, Ph.D. New York: E. L. Kellogg & Co.

Horace Mann, the Educator. By Albert E. Winship. Boston: New England Publishing Co. 1896.

Froebel's Gifts. By Kate Douglas Wiggin and Nora Archibald Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

Child Observations. First Series: Imitation and Allied Activities. Edited by Miss Ellen M. Haskell. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1896.

A New Manual of Method. By A. H. Garlick, B.A., Head-Master of the Woolwich P. T. School. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

Second Year-Book of the National Herbart Society. Edited by Charles A. McMurtry, Secretary, Normal, Illinois. Bloomington, Illinois: Pantagraph Printing and Stationery Co. 1896.

Hegel as Educator. By Frederic Ludlow Luqueer, Ph.D., Sometime Fellow in Education in Columbia University. Macmillan Co. 1896.

DR. SEELYE has spent four years in Germany, and now seeks to depict the Prussian school system and draw therefrom lessons applicable to American schools. He has read widely the current pedagogical literature and diligently visited German schools of all kinds. The kindergarten, he well reminds us, in Germany is not regarded as a school so much as a place where the children of poor parents can be left for the day. The women in charge of it have little training, and teachers generally regard its educational value as but slight. A rescript of the Minister of Education in 1884 forbids teaching even the rudiments of reading and number, and every other specific preparation for the work of the elementary schools. The author is greatly impressed with the contrast between this status of the

kindergarten in the land of Froebel and its position in this country, where many of the brightest women are engaged in the work, and where it is constantly pressing upon the work of the public schools. His comparisons are carried up step by step through primary and secondary education. Chapters are also devoted to administration, buildings, school money, pensions, education of girls, examinations, courses, etc. The two needs in this country most urged are professional training of teachers and compulsory education for seven years. Here the author wants superintendents with large powers appointed for ten years; teachers' positions to be made permanent, and pensions provided. Best of all the thirty-seven chapters are those that deal with the training of teachers and the history of the Prussian school system. The merit of the book is extremely uneven, but, on the whole, it is one of the best of the many studies of German schools recently published in this country.

Mr. Winship's study of Horace Mann came just in time for the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of his birth, May 4. The leading features of his life and his salient opinions are concisely stated, and bring home to our minds, what we were in danger of forgetting, the great work which his enthusiasm and devotion accomplished. The development of the 'public high school in place of the old endowed academy, the organization of teachers' associations, the establishment of normal schools and of school supervision, to say nothing of the great improvements in methods and the vast interest in public education which he aroused throughout the country—perhaps no one man in modern times has achieved more in this field. Like Fichte, Mann believed that education was the one holy cause of the world, devotion to which should measure the merit of men and states. That a member of Congress and President of the State Senate should resign his career to serve this cause, showed a sincerity which is no less manifest in the fourteen volumes of his life and works. If Lotze was right in saying that the supreme happiness of man is to get himself fully expressed, surely Horace Mann, with his passion for utterance in diaries, confidential personal letters, speeches, and controversies, must have been happy. The modern critic would call him neurotic. His enemies say that his statue in front of the Boston State House beside that of Daniel Webster, whom he prominently withstood, was erected by partisan zeal; and Mr. Winship's book shows, by its halting timidity in dealing with the great controversy, with the forty-one Boston schoolmasters, which his biographer had almost omitted, how strong yet among the pedagogues of that city is the animus against reform. To our mind, Col. Parker's view is truer in this respect than that of Commissioner Harris.

'Froebel's Gifts,' really the work of the second of the two authors named in the title, is the first of three volumes to appear on the theory and practice of the kindergarten. As the last of so many books on this topic we think it may be regarded, as indeed it should be, as also the best. The author has had mature experience as a kindergartener, and is well up in kindergarten metaphysics. She evidently does not know German, but there is almost nothing good on that subject now which is not in English. Her mind is candidly open to results from the new field of child-study which is so fruitful of transforming suggestions in this field, and it is to be hoped that the later volumes will more fully utilize re-

sults in these lines. No two parties in the whole range of education are perhaps more widely apart than the old orthodox metaphysical Froebellians on the one hand and the progressives on the other. Miss Smith stands well between, but with a leaning towards the old. The stultifying effect of the worship of sphere, cube, and cylinder and the other mathematical and mechanical gifts upon school drawing, and the possibility of radical reconstructions here, do not occur to Miss Smith. Still, on the whole, we must cordially admit her book to be the best in any language in its limited sphere.

Miss Haskell has selected from 35,000 incidents illustrating the nature of children, which Principal Russell of the State Normal School at Worcester has taught his pupils to record, 1,207 cases of imitation which are typical, and which are divided into eleven groups or chapters, by the ages three, four, five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, eleven, twelve, and sixteen. These charming records are printed baldly, without a word of comment or theory; but in a thirty-page introduction by Principal Russell we are reminded, on the authority of Darwin and Huxley, that there is no wall of circumscription that separates science from common sense; that observation must be superficial before it can be deep; that the mind grows somewhat like the skull, from centres of ossification that are at first independent and grow together later; that the child is not an homunculus, but a radically different being from the adult; that the irresistible fascination of these records suggests a more or less prolonged stage of silent education by imitation. On the whole, this book should be ranked with the works of Burroughs, Thoreau, and Jefferies as a brilliant and suggestive bit of nature-study directed towards nature's consummate flower, the child—of all things in the world the object most worthy of love, reverence, study, and service.

Mr. Garlick attempts to give in one small volume an epitome of school hygiene, discipline, classification, teaching, object lessons, and each of the chief branches of school work, based on ten years' experience as headmaster of the Woolwich P. T. School. From its nature the book does not lend itself to description. It is copiously illustrated with cuts of apparatus, object-lessons, etc., and the author has carefully studied the English literature of his subject, so that he speaks in a broad, comparative way. It is the best manual of its scope and size in English, but its chief fault of overcrowding and of too much fine type is rather grave.

The fourteen articles of the Second Year-Book of the Herbartian Society are chiefly devoted to culture-epochs, or the differences and likenesses between the stages of development in the race and the child. Professors Hinsdale, White, and Galbraith see but little fruitfulness in comparing philogeny and ontogeny. Professor Dewey urges that in these comparisons the child and not the race should lead. Dr. McMurry vigorously champions his own very ingenious application of the "epoch" method to American schools against the above attacks, and against the five-fold courses recommended by the Committee of Fifteen. The best article by far is that of Dr. Lukens, who makes a clear case against many theories of muscle-training, and would have all children pass through a prolonged period of receptivity—all the cortex being sensory and only one-third being motor—before active education should begin. A play stage must

precede every successful direction of education by work. Drill cannot come till the motor has overtaken the sensory development. He would begin handwriting two or three years later, put its chief strain on the fifth school year, and then stop it, and advises that a long period of free and spontaneous drawing precede the grammar and rhetoric of the pencil. In fine, the Herbartian Society has made here a very important contribution towards the clearing up of many of the most obscure practical problems of education.

Dr. Luqueer has gathered, translated, or condensed Hegel's most important contributions to pedagogy, preceding them by a valuable account of Hegel's educational life. Although this great idealist himself wrote no treatise on pedagogics, his disciple Rosenkranz has evolved from his system a philosophy of education widely read in this country. With the aid of this and of Thaulow's work the author has given us a very serviceable picture of Hegel's conceptions in a more concrete form than they have hitherto had either in English or in German.

THREE NOVELS.

The Governor's Garden: A Relation of Some Passages in the Life of His Excellency, Thomas Hutchinson, sometime Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of His Majesty's Province of Massachusetts Bay. By George R. R. Rivers. Boston: Joseph Knight. 1896.

A Bad Penny. By John T. Wheelwright, author of 'A Child of the Century,' 'Rollo's Journey to Cambridge,' etc. With illustrations by F. G. Attwood. [Papyrus Series.] Boston: Lamson, Wolfe & Co. 1896.

Will o' the Wasp: A Sea Yarn of the War of '12. Edited by Henry Lawrence, U. S. N., and now brought before the public for the first time. By Robert Cameron Rogers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

THE tremendous accession of "patriotism" which our country experienced last winter has operated to produce several new stories turning on critical periods in American history. Mr. George R. R. Rivers gives us one, founded on the garden of Gov. Hutchinson. He tells us that he has spent most of his life on this estate in Milton, and has long had the design of writing such a story and exhibiting the Governor in his true character. Notoriously the character of Hutchinson has given rise to very bitter discussion, and no doubt the favorable view of him lately produced by Prof. Hosmer will come nearer the final verdict of history than the traditional conception of a dark and designing minion of tyranny. But no one before Mr. Rivers ever pictured him as an amiable old twaddler, whose time in 1774 was wholly occupied in gush over the beauties of the "pleached" walks of his garden on Milton Hill, surrounded exclusively by domestic society, and seeing nothing of such friends and enemies as Andrew Oliver or Samuel Adams. Mr. Rivers's Hutchinson may be Thomas, but he is no Governor at all, good or bad. He is surrounded by a mass of melodramatic characters, impossible Indians and extinct pirates, liberal Tories, and bigoted Whigs, lovers and villains, who career in a wild dance at all seasons of the year from Nantasket Roads by Summer Street and the Neponset River to Blue Hill (of which Mr. Rivers asserts the ancient name to have been *Massawachusett*, a form not common with our historians) and Ponkapoag; all these

spots being, of course, perfectly clear in the mind's eye of a life-long Miltonite, but far otherwise even to the average Bostonian. When they have exhausted these unhappy hunting-grounds, it is a trifle to go marooning in the Caribbean Sea, or robbing travellers not far from Gadshill. It is not pleasant to speak harshly of what is a labor of love; but when one thinks of the 'Heart of Midlothian,' one is amazed that a cultivated New Englander should imagine that he is honoring his historic home by such soulless puppets traversing such unreal ground. The story appears in a kind of imitation antique style, the proper names being all in italics, and is illustrated by several black profiles, which the author tells us are chiefly fictitious.

We have also two stories apparently intended to support the thesis that the war of 1812 was a source of unmitigated glory to the United States, and especially to New England. Mr. John T. Wheelwright, who gained considerable reputation some years ago for reckless comicalities, has had the courage to bring into the fiercest light the only naval contest of that war which is remembered in England—the battle of the *Chesapeake* and the *Shannon*—as if, after all, it redounded to America's credit. His hero is a runaway boy from "Oldbury" (Newbury), selected on the "wild-oats" theory—namely, that if you wish to find a thoroughly intelligent, honorable, and right-feeling young man, who will prove entirely trustworthy in ordinary times and heroic in a crisis, you must look for him in the family plague, who steadily resists all attempts to train him according to the accepted standards of his time; it being understood that a boy of fifteen is sure to know what is worth while for him to do better than anybody three or four times his age. The story is lively and carries one on easily to the dénouement; the good people being mostly bad, and the bad people mostly good. There are some clever descriptions of places and manners in the first decade of this century. But, surely, such a word as "gripsack" was unknown in those days; would it were now! Mr. Wheelwright twice makes one of his characters play with a "fob," which he evidently imagines to be a kind of outside appendage to an antique watch; if he will read over the first scene of *Gulliver's* life in Lilliput and the inventory of his property, he will find out what a fob is. He has probably one on his own person at this moment.

A much better story of this period is 'Will o' the Wasp,' by Robert Cameron Rogers. Readers of the 'Autocrat' will remember how Dr. Holmes speaks of the intense interest attaching in his boyhood to the gallant *Wasp*, which disappeared towards the end of the war, and was never heard of. This "yarn" purports to be the adventures of an old sailor who saw her sink, was taken prisoner and paroled in England, but, being affected in the head by an old wound, never thoroughly realized his position, and lived to extreme old age in the delusion that the countries were still at war. It is an extremely spirited and carefully written narrative of the imaginary triumphs and escapes of an ancient corvette, and may be cordially commended to all those who love stories of naval adventure, especially if, like the Hon. Theodore Roosevelt, they are all on fire to have some more fighting at sea with somebody.

Introduction to the Study of Latin Inscriptions. By James C. Egbert, Jr., Ph.D., Ad-

junct. Professor of Latin, Columbia College. American Book Co. 1896.

WORDSWORTH'S 'Fragments and Specimens' and Allen's small but most scholarly and compendious 'Remnants of Early Latin' have hitherto been the only books in English which served as an introduction to the study of Latin inscriptions. In neither of them is the matter confined to inscriptions alone, for it includes also the remains of archaic literature. There has long been a call for a work of some size which should be devoted solely to the teaching of what the classical student is constantly wanting to know about Latin epigraphy, and such a work Prof. Egbert has provided.

The volume is a small quarto of 468 pages, printed in clear and sometimes in inscriptional type, with numerous process reproductions from the stones themselves. The introduction contains a general bibliography of the subject, including periodical literature, and an account of the contents of the 'Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum,' with useful explanations of the means of presentation employed in these volumes and of their general economy. Then follows the first part, consisting of three chapters—the first and second on the Latin alphabet, historical and morphological, the third on numerals. In the second chapter we note a particularly good account of the methods of Roman stonecutters—a topic too often neglected, yet, in its details, often of the first importance in determining the weight to be attached to the documents under consideration. The chapter on numerals, too, will be welcomed by many who have wrestled with this delicate matter, whether in studying the stones or in composing modern Latin inscriptions after the ancient pattern. Each chapter in this and in the two other parts concludes with a special bibliography.

The personal name plays a most important part in inscriptions. The student must understand the nature of Roman names in order to comprehend inscriptions, and, on the other hand, inscriptions are our chief source of information about the nature of names, since, as Prof. Egbert remarks, in them "the Roman name has its fullest use and most complete form." The first chapter of the second part is, therefore, devoted to this subject, and deals in a clear and trustworthy manner with the appellations of men, women, freedmen, naturalized citizens, and slaves. The names and titles of the emperors are treated in the second, and official titles in general in the third chapter of this part. Here, and calling for special praise, is a chronological list of the emperors, with their various titles and the dates when these titles were assumed, calculated even to months and days. For this valuable contribution the author thanks Mr. George Olcott, a Fellow of Columbia College.

In the first chapter of the third part we pass from public to private life, and are shown dedicatory, sepulchral, and honorary inscriptions, together with a wide selection from inscriptions cut upon comparatively small and movable objects. To show how deeply the author goes, we need only refer to his quotation of several examples of oculists' stamps—tablets intended to be placed upon eye-salves and the like, giving the name of the physician, the disease, the remedy, and the method of its application. The next chapter is devoted to public documents, such as laws, decrees, and diplomas, to private documents, such as wax tablets, and to graffiti. The last chapter tells how inscriptions are restored and dated, and concludes with a table of Latin abbreviations, covering over forty pages.

Prof. Egbert is thoroughly at home in his subject, and all English-speaking students must be grateful to him for his clear and simple presentation of it. His book should be in the revolving bookcase of every classical scholar, while college teachers will find it admirably adapted to the needs of classes in epigraphy, since many of its pages are given up to inscriptions for practice, provided with brief explanatory notes. The author's style is interesting, and the publishers have done all in their power to add to the attractiveness of the work. We venture to prophesy that it has before it a long and useful future.

A Primer of Evolution. By Edward Clodd. Longmans, Green & Co. 12mo, pp. 186. Illustrated.

INJUSTICE is done to this excellent little work by calling it a primer. It is an abridgment rather than an elementary first book, and it is suited to educated readers or advanced students rather than beginners. The story of creation is admirably told; it is the story of the changes of matter, ethereal, gaseous, liquid, solid, and living. The beginning is beyond us. Matter, force, and energy may possibly be one; the transition between inorganic and organic energies may be possibly found in the electric group; having the same ingredients, the difference between the inorganic and the organic must lie in the mixing, the greater complexities of the organic constituting difference in degree but not in kind.

"The organism has—(1) infinite complexity of structure; (2) inherited tendencies; (3) mobility and continuous motion, therefore capacity to vary. (4) Variations are induced by the surroundings on which, as vehicles of energy, life depends; (5) when the surroundings change, the organism adapts itself or not to the change; (6) such as fail to adapt themselves perish; (7) such as adapt themselves vary in greater or lesser degree; (8) these variations, being transmitted, are stages in the development of different life-forms. To put the matter briefly, likenesses are inherited, variations are acquired."

Concerning intellectual functions, our author states that there is no break in the series which, starting in reflex movements in amoebæ and carnivorous plants, advances along the line of animal instinct and intelligence, and ends in the complex movements of the brain of civilized man with its infinite modes of response to infinite stimuli; that there is fundamental correspondence between the nervous systems of the lowest and the highest; that there is not a faculty of the human mind which is not possessed in lesser or greater degree by the animals nearer to man; that instinct is a higher form of reflex action, and that the distinction which man has set up between instinct and reason is unreal.

That portion of the book relating to the causes of the diversity in living forms is the least satisfactory. The explanation is very familiar and very inadequate, namely: the modifications which exist have been developed through the potent agency of natural and sexual selection acting upon variations induced by diverse conditions; more organisms are born than survive; the race is to the swift, and the battle to the strong—the weaker, be it in brain or body, going to the wall, the vast majority never reaching maturity, or, if they do arrive at it, attaining it only to be starved or slain; victory is assured to that form which has some advantage, etc. "The vast majority" makes an impressive showing in figures, but it was destroyed by accidents before strength and swiftness were developed,

and there is no reason why the survival of the remainder in great part may not also have been due to accidents. The slower or the weaker may have withdrawn from competition, through intelligence or reason, selecting a dwelling in the rocks or the thickets, to establish new tendencies in variation, and finally a new race, without any other form of selection.

Spiritual matters are passed over by our author with scant consideration: the duty of theology, he says, is to readjust itself to what science proves to be true, otherwise it is doomed; in the end, when it is seen that theories about gods and all other spiritual beings have nothing whatever to do with man's duty to his fellows, he will occupy himself with that duty alone.

The Astronomy of Milton's 'Paradise Lost.' By Thomas N. Orchard. Longmans, Green & Co.

MR. ORCHARD has by no means confined himself to the strict limits which his title-page suggests, but has used his subject rather as a peg whereon to hang a discourse which enters deeply into general historical and descriptive astronomy. Indeed, one who takes up the volume through interest in Milton may reasonably feel somewhat disappointed that there is so much astronomy and comparatively so little Milton. Our author's method is a logical one, for he outlines the story of astronomy up to Milton's time, describes the changes which the previous century had wrought in scientific and popular belief, notes the acquaintance of the poet with Galileo and other leaders of thought, describes the objects which are mentioned in the poem, including, of course, everything in the heavens that is noteworthy, and, incidentally to this description, brings forward the quotations which have reference to all these objects.

One cannot help praising the literary work of Mr. Orchard, for his English is good, and he gives an excellent review of 'Paradise Lost,' which evidences much thought and study. The astronomy, too, is of pretty good quality. It is true that it is of the picturesque rather than the precise, for the author has apparently a better acquaintance with what has been written about astronomy than with the opinions and practices of the working astronomer of the day. He has therefore perpetuated some minor errors, and has occasionally missed the real point of interest respecting the object described. For example, the universality of the law of gravitation is stated to have been proved by observations of the motions of the double stars. The thoughtful astronomer of to-day cannot quite agree with Mr. Orchard, albeit he is repeating what has been said before. The computer of the double-star orbit assumes the law and bases his deductions upon this assumption. Lacking proof as yet, he begs the whole question, and hopes by reasoning backwards from effect to establish the cause. Then, again, it is an inexact statement to say that some of the orbits of the double stars "approach in form that of a comet." The comparison might be of value in conveying an idea to children or to those who are inexpert; but when one understands such technical terms as eccentric, apastron, and the like (as one must who reads the book), and can appreciate a parallax of 1-20 of a second, and can realize that a globe subtending an angle of 5' must have a real diameter 1-687 of its distance from the eye, etc., one is above the kindergarten illustra-

tion, and can learn that ellipses may be of very different forms, and that the orbits of the double stars form a well-defined group which is perhaps midway between the almost circular orbits of the planets and the very elongated ellipses of the periodical comets. The presentation of an account of the variable star, Mira Ceti, which makes no mention of the fact that its vagaries have fairly driven the patient observers wild, is lacking in completeness, for this extreme irregularity of light-variation is the most interesting feature of Mira "the wonderful."

It is unfortunate that some of the statements put forth by Mr. Orchard have been superseded by scientific activity during the preparation of his book. Thus, Gore's orbit of 70 Ophiuchi, which is figured in the volume, has been replaced by See's orbit of the same double star, and the latter, with its introduction of a third body into the system, is quite different from Gore's. The periodical time of Mira Ceti is no longer given as 334 days, which are Mr. Orchard's figures, but for thirty years certainly has been known to be 331 days, and the most rapid in period of the double stars is no longer Mr. Orchard's Delta Equulei, but Kappa Pegasi, while there are indications that still a third star will halve the diminished periodic time. These matters are all minor ones, it is true, and have little to do with Milton, but they do affect the character of the book.

The historical portion of the volume is quite as minute as is the descriptive astronomy, and serves to show Milton's relation to the science. It presents in concise form the beginnings of astronomy, passes to the consideration of the work of the old philosophers and students, Thales, Pythagorus, Hipparchus, and Ptolemy, then the more modern masters, Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, Kepler, and Galileo, most of whom have biographical notices several pages in length. Then there is outlined the astronomy of the seventeenth century, to show the environment of the poet. Copernicus had been dead half a century when Milton was born, but the celestial system which he originated was not generally accepted in England even when Milton had reached man's estate. The early education of the poet, therefore, gave him the idea of the Ptolemaic scheme, a central earth, with the sun and planets (each in its own sphere) revolving about it. In his earlier poems he is quite committed to this idea, but there is reason to think that before he died he believed with Copernicus. Some passages in 'Paradise Lost' give evidence of this, but, for other reasons, the general idea which prevails in the great poem is the Ptolemaic. The literature and models which Milton studied were addicted to the older cosmography, and the scheme of Ptolemy afforded picturesque and poetical features that are lacking in the Copernican. To a remarkable extent Milton embodied in his poem the science, philosophy, and theology of his times, and in astronomy the accuracy of his facts fairly divides the honors with the beauty of his language. His astronomy was most remarkable, and Mr. Orchard has brought abundant proof as to its quality and fulness.

Poems of Uhland. Selected and Edited by Waterman T. Hewett, Ph.D., Professor of the German Language and Literature in Cornell University. Macmillan. 1896.

THE first collection of Uhland's poems appeared in 1815, and in 1875 they reached their

sixtieth edition; since then this average of one edition annually has been greatly increased. His poetry has become an essential part of the culture of the German people, and the innumerable translations and musical settings it has received have made it an international possession. The modesty which distinguished the poet's character still attaches to our estimate of him. We involuntarily think of Uhland as one of "the humbler poets," and yet, if we except Goethe, there is none among the lyric poets of Germany that surpasses him. An excellent test of a poet's lyric quality is an appeal to the composers. Beethoven and Weber and, strangest of all, Franz, have never set Uhland to music, but we have the authority of Dr. Max Friedlaender for the statement that, after Goethe, Uhland is equalled only by Eichendorff and Heine in the estimation of composers. It is with a disapproving side-glance at Heine that Prof. Hewett writes of Uhland: "He never utters a sentiment and then scoffs at himself, because he has trusted and loved." On this genuineness rests Uhland's best title to his lofty place.

This handsome edition includes more than two hundred out of a total of about three hundred and fifty poems. Prof. Hewett's judicious annotations and carefully prepared critical apparatus are a credit to American scholarship. An excellent biographical introduction contains all the essential facts in the story of the poet's busy life. The bibliography is far from complete, but all the more important publications are recorded. The list of English translations and translators is apparently all-inclusive, and it is so valuable a feature that no edition of the works of a foreign writer should ever be published without it. When we add that besides the initial index there is also a chronological list of the poems and an index to first lines, it will be seen that everything has been done for the convenience of the student. For the quality of paper and typography the publishers' name is a guarantee. There are several misprints, but we have noticed only two that are at all likely to mislead: on p. xxi the date of "Des Knaben Wunderhorn" should be, not 1805, but 1806-1808; and on p. 342, Fraenkel's edition is dated 1839—a half-century too early.

Aux États-Unis. Par Dr. Auguste Lutaud. New York: Brentano's. 1896.

DR. LUTAUD saw a good deal of the United States, and his general impressions were those of a fair-minded observer. There is nothing very original in his volume; even his remarks on the "drug-store," in which he has called attention to one of the most fundamental differences between European and American civilization, yet one which has been generally overlooked, seem to be in part taken from another writer. Nevertheless they deserve notice. What the English call a chemist and we an apothecary occupies on the Continent a position entirely different from that which he holds generally in the United States. In France, for instance, his business is not regarded as purely commercial. It partakes of a solemn and professional character; the druggist is an educated man, must invariably have a diploma, and, when he "fills a prescription," officiates responsibly, almost as one holding a public office. In this country, speaking in general, he is a merchant, a vender not merely of drugs, but of a dozen other things which, to a European, have no sort of connection with his calling. He sells not only certain things which are connected with the care of

the body—e. g., tooth powder, hair brushes and hair tonics, and perfumes—but he has a soda-fountain, behind which he establishes a bar-tender, who serves out not merely soda-water and syrups, as in the earlier and purer days of the republic, but all sorts of beverages, many of them of a highly alcoholic character; he has also a stock of cigars and cigarettes, and he not infrequently has a supply of stationery, liquors, candy, canes, and umbrellas, pocket-books, razors, knives, and "notions" generally. If he is a benevolent man, he always has on hand not only a city directory for free consultation, but a few postage stamps. Dr. Lutaud would have us believe that he is also a florist; this, however, is an inaccuracy which may be pardoned in a foreign observer.

It must be confessed that for accurate observation we do not go with absolute security to French writers of "impressions de voyage." When Dr. Lutaud says that one does not spend any more in travelling here than in Europe (p. 5), he contradicts not only Baedeker, but common experience, and makes a statement which is certainly not supported by that made on p. 98, that one may in New York be asked a dollar for washing a shirt. Surely error must lurk somewhere here. He is perfectly right in remarking that a railroad crossing in the United States makes the traveller understand in how free a country he is; but the warning addressed to the public is not usually, "Take care; the railroad is crossing here" (p. 40). The worthy doctor is mistaken in thinking that "pride alone can explain the existence" of buildings twenty-five stories high; and no statue, so far as we are aware, has been put up in Madison Square to the memory of any one named William Stewart (p. 88). Central Park was not, as some one seems to have told him, laid out by a French engineer (p. 90), nor do the gigantic boats which ply on the Hudson carry travellers "from New York to Buffalo" (p. 92).

The advice given for ocean voyages (p. 31) is only in part good. "If seasick, remain in your cabin" will do only for the Latin race. The Anglo-Saxon rule is the reverse of this. On the other hand, "Don't try to comfort persons who are seasick; you will only increase their shame and wretchedness" is excellent, as is also, "Don't tell stories of shipwreck to your neighbors at table"; "Don't forget that the steward is an important person"; "Don't ask when you will arrive; not even the captain can tell you." One of the most amusing things in the book is the account, given in the chapter on the Mormons, of the steps taken by the Cannon household to conform to the law suppressing polygamy.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, L. W. Abraham Lincoln: A Poem. Putnam's. \$1.
A Story of the Heavenly Camp-Fires. Harpers. \$1.25.
Bayne, S. G. The Fifth of Astronomy. Harpers. \$1.
Beebe, Katherine. Home Occupations for Little Children. Chicago: The Werner Co. 75c.
Boggs, Martha F. A Romance of the New Virginia. Boston: Arena Publishing Co.
Bolmer, W. B. The Time is Coming. G. W. Dillingham. \$1.
Brazza, Countess di. A Literary Farce. Boston: Arena Publishing Co.
Brooks, J. W. History of the Court of Common Pleas of the City and County of New York. The Author. \$5.
Chautauqua Required Literature for 1896-7. 5 vols. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Cochran, Mrs. M. A. Posie; An Army Story. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. \$1.25.
Collinson, Joseph. What It Costs to be Vaccinated. London: William Reeves.
Conra, Joseph. An Outcast of the Islands. Appletons. \$1.
Conwell, R. H. and Perkins, T. E. Songs Tried and Proved. Philadelphia: A. J. Rowland. 30c.
Cœur d'Or. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's. 75c.
Conyngham, Dane. Eunice Quince. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Cornish, W. W. M. Behind Plastered Walls. G. W. Dillingham. \$1.
Dana, C. A. Proudhon, and his "Bank of the People." B. R. Tucker.

D'Annunzio, Gabriele. Episcopo & Company. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
De la Camp, Otto A. A Spiritual Tour of the World. Boston: Arena Publishing Co.
Deschamps, Gaston. La Vie et les Livres. Troisième Série. Paris: Colin & Cie
Dicey, A. V. A Digest of the Law of England, with Reference to the Conflict of Laws. With Notes of American Cases, by J. H. Moore. London: Stevens & Sons; Boston: Boston Book Co.
Dickinson, Mrs. Ellen. The King's Daughters. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Dugard, M. La Société Américaine. Paris: Hachette; New York: Lemcke & Buchner.
Hardwicke, Henry. History of Oratory and Orators. Putnam. \$3.

Harvey, Charles M. History of the Republican Party, together with the Proceedings of the Republican National Convention at St. Louis. St. Louis: I. Haas Publishing Co.
Hume, Fergus. The Third Volume. Cassell. 50c.
Jayne, Lieut. R. H. The Golden Rock. American Publishers Corporation.
Jokai, Maurus. Black Diamonds. Harpers. \$1.50.
Lynn, W. T. Remarkable Eclipses. London: Edward Stanford.
Macpherson, Hector. Here's to the Heather: Poems and Songs. New York: Scottish-American Press.
Melville, Herman. Moby Dick. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Melville, Herman. Omoo. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.

Melville, Herman. The White Jacket. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Merron, Eleanor. As the Wind Blows. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Mossell, Rev. C. W. Tousaint L'Ouverture; or, Hayti's Struggle. Lockport, N. Y.: Ward & Cobb.
Needham, Geo. C. Conflict and Conquest. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 50c.
Pritchard, M. J. Without Sin: A Novel. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. \$1.25.
Rexdale, Robert. The Cuban Liberated. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Roberts, C. G. D. The Canadian Guide-Book. Appleton.
Seldmore, Eliza R. Guide-Book to Alaska and the Northwest Coast. Appletons.

HENRY HOLT & CO., NEW YORK,

Have published since June, 1895:

HISTORY AND ENGLISH.

Francke's Social Forces in German Literature. Large 12mo, \$2.00.

Outlook: A real contribution to the literature about literature. . . . Exhibits insight, comprehension, and carefulness.

The hurchman: A work of profound learning, of great interest, and of undoubted usefulness. . . . Every important writer is dealt with in a manner concise, searching, and with true literary insight and enthusiasm. The quotations are numerous and judicious.

H. C. G. BRANDT, *Professor in Hamilton College, N. Y.:* It is a fine work, in many respects it is a really great work. The part on the Romantic School is especially good and will open the eyes of all English readers. I also admire the sober and well-balanced estimates of Luther, Klopstock, and Lessing.

Specimens of Prose Composition.

Baldwin's Specimens of Prose Description. 16mo, 50 cents.

Brewster's Specimens of Prose Narration. 16mo, 50 cents.

J. F. GUNUNG, *Professor in Amherst College:* I am glad to see the literary forms made the subject of something like scientific study. So far as my courses will permit I shall take pleasure in using the volumes in my work.

G. J. SMITH, *Columbia University, Washington, D. C.:* Admirably practical helps to the work of the teacher of rhetoric. . . . The great merit of this series seems to be not merely that the selections are in themselves interesting and valuable, but that the introductions are well adapted to guide the student in his own efforts.

Earlier volumes:

Baker's Specimens of Argumentation. 16mo, 50 cents.

Lamont's Specimens of Exposition. 16mo, 50 cents.

ROBERT W. HERBICK, *Professor in the University of Chicago:* This book and Mr. Baker's Specimens of Argumentation are the two most useful books for the teacher of composition recently published.

Emerson's Johnson's Rasselas. 16mo (buckram, 70c.), cloth, 50c.

Fyffe's History of Modern Europe. (New Edition in one vol.), \$2.75.

Hale's Constructive Rhetoric. 12mo, \$1.00.

A. G. NEWCOMER, *Professor in Leland Stanford University:* I like in particular the vigorous logical method that everywhere underlies the intentionally familiar and almost colloquial manner which Mr. Hale has assumed.

G. J. SMITH, *Columbia University, Washington, D. C.:* It is one of the most stimulating and original treatments of the subject of rhetoric that I have ever seen. The plan is unique and practical, and even the style and modes of presentation entertaining.

W. T. BREWSTER, *Instructor in Columbia University, N. Y. City:* I find it a great pleasure to read a rhetoric done in so pleasant a vein and free from all the repellent pedantry which one occasionally finds in text-books.

W. F. SIMONDS, *Professor in Knox College, Ill.:* The brief review that I have been able to give to it as yet impresses me with the originality and freshness of the book both in material and in method.

SOPHIE C. HART, *Professor in Wellesley College, Mass.:* The book is a radical and refreshing departure from the cut-and-dried method of presenting the problems of rhetoric and composition in the average text-book. This originality of treatment makes the book of peculiar and suggestive value.

Lounsbury's History of the English Language. Part I. 12mo, 90 cents.

Brandt and Day's Reader in Scientific German.
Bevler's French Grammar.
Cameron's Tales from Coppee and De Maupassant.

FOR SPEEDY ISSUE:

Goodrich's Goethe's Goetz von Berlichingen
Harper's Selections from Sainte-Beuve.
Jagemann's Goethe's Dichtung und Wahrheit.

Kuhn's Amicus Cuore.
Perry's Selections from Burke.
Wenckebach's Deutsche Sprachlehre.

The above prices are NET prices. New Educational Catalogue and List of Books in General Literature free on application.

GOLDEN SCEPTRE.

PERFECTION FOR THE PIPE.

Send 40 cents for 4-oz. sample to

SURBRUG, 159 Fulton St., N. Y. City.

Letters
of
Credit.

Brown Brothers & Co., Bankers.
NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

We buy and sell bills of exchange on and make Cable Transfers of money to Europe, Australia, and the West Indies; also make collections and issue Commercial and Travelers' Credits, available in all parts of the world.

MISS RUDD, 12 YEARS RESIDENT in Europe, will conduct small party in autumn for study abroad. Music, Art, Languages, etc.
Address: North Washington St., Norwich, Conn.
References: Rev. E. A. Bradley, D. D., St. Agnes, N. Y.; Rev. G. R. Van De Water, D. D., St. Andrews, N. Y.; Prof. F. D. Allen, Harvard University; Dr. E. P. Keep, Principal Norwich Free Academy.

Yale Mixture.

A GENTLEMAN'S-SMOKE.

You won't know the luxury of Pipe-Smoking until you use Yale Mixture.

A two-oz. trial package, postpaid, for 25 cts.

MARBURG BROS.,

The American Tobacco Co., Successor,
Baltimore, Md.